

The Nation.

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The Week.

THE principal political events of the week have been the delivery of an important speech by Senator Morton, and the very outspoken call of the Illinois Democratic Committee. The committee did not choose to await the action of the Convention, but endeavored to give commanding advice as to the State platform to be made on the 26th instant. It invites to the Convention both Democrats and Liberal Republicans, and, in general, all men who are "in favor of the restoration of gold and silver as the basis of the currency of the country, the speedy resumption of specie payments, and the payment of all national indebtedness in the money recognized by the civilized world." What success will attend the attempt of the committee to pledge the party in this way remains to be seen; it seems hardly probable that the friends of inflation will surrender the Convention to the resumptionists, but the committee's tone is bold. We observe that its members had in their council Mr. Raster and Mr. Hesing of the Illinois *Staats-Zeitung*, gentlemen supposed to represent with more or less fulness the German vote; and that they also received some advice from the rather flighty ex-Governor Palmer, one of the few Liberal Republicans still extant.

Mr. Morton's speech touched on all current political topics, and as usual did not lack for cleverness. Probably the entire Republican party might be searched in vain for a better specimen than Mr. Morton of the partisan Republican pure and simple; and at the beginning of his speech he gave the audience some of his usual bounce about the treason and folly of the Democracy, and the vigor of the Republicans in themselves purging their party of corrupt men whenever and wheresoever found. The Reciprocity Treaty he took occasion to denounce with as much severity as was shown the measure by Mr. Blaine; and free-trade he scouted in terms which seem so unnecessary for the agricultural communities of Indiana that there is inevitably a suggestion of a wider audience to be reached and captivated. Mr. Blaine, with his usual luck, was not compelled to be so transparent, his locality accounting naturally enough for his protectionism. As for the Civil Rights Bill, Mr. Morton declared that it was no more stringent than a law for similar purposes which is already on the Indiana statute-books, and he pronounced false and baseless the rumor that the President disliked the bill: the President had no fondness for the Southern Democrat. The main burden of the speech, however, was the cheap-transportation question, and next to that the currency. In brief, Mr. Morton thinks that the State governments in their due degree and the Federal Government in its degree have full power to regulate all railroads. But he warns the voter that the problem is a knotty one, and that it must be attacked in a spirit of moderation. On the whole, he thinks the best machinery for performing the necessary regulation would be boards of commissioners empowered to fix rates, prevent the corporations from taking advantage of the hard frosts which close the canals, crush out many other extortionate practices, and so on and so on. In speaking of the currency, the Senator defended inflation, and did a good deal of obfuscatory laudation of the national-bank notes. Last winter's work on the currency he is said in the popular version of his speech to have described as "kicking out of Congress the monster of contraction after expansion had been crammed down its throat."

Senator Windom of Minnesota, in a conversation with a *Tribune* correspondent, perhaps throws some light on the boldness of the hard-money men in Illinois. He says that he never was so much deceived about any political matter as about the opinions of his

constituency in regard to inflation. With a curious frankness, he says that he did not think well of inflation at first; he thought it was wrong; but he was given to understand that his people out in Minnesota wanted it, so he changed sides, and voted for the bill which was vetoed, and afterwards for the bill which became law. Now he discovers, to his surprise, that he might as well have behaved a little more like a man: "Since his return to the State, he had found very few who are in favor of inflation," and next winter it will doubtless be more difficult to Mortonize him into "cramming expansion down the throat of the monster of contraction." This same correspondent notes that Minnesota was never more prosperous than now, and that, with the farmers lending money to the banks instead of borrowing it, there is as little need for a cry for more currency as there is for the farmers to ask the railroad companies to carry at reduced rates the twenty-five million dollars' worth of surplus wheat which they sent out of the State in 1873, or the twenty million dollars' worth which they will send this year.

On the question of responsibility for the corruptions and disorders in South Carolina, Mr. Morton was more explicit and logical than in some other parts of his speech. He says in the first place that they have been "exaggerated an hundredfold," though there is still "too much truth in them"; that the Democrats of the State have had just as much share in the frauds and peculations as the Republicans; that "the Republican party of the United States have no other responsibility than this," that they "prevented the dissolution of the Union, abolished slavery, clothed the negroes with civil and political rights, and gave them an equal participation with their late masters in the reconstruction of the State government, which had been destroyed by the rebellion." For the "mental and moral condition" of the negroes, which under the Reconstruction acts has produced all the trouble, "the old slaveholding Democracy is responsible"; but for the fact that the negroes had an equal right to liberty and the suffrage, which the Republican party was forced by its own sense of justice to confer upon them, with whom does the responsibility rest? "The responsibility must be traced directly to the great Creator of us all, who, in his holy Word and throughout his works, has proclaimed the equal humanity, rights, and immortality of all men." This chain of reasoning, simple as it is, is open to the objection of putting too great a burden on the Almighty. There are various degrees and modes of responsibility for the present political condition, not of South Carolina alone, but of the entire South, for some of which the Republican party may take credit to itself, and will permanently obtain it in history. Such are the necessary steps in the suppression of the rebellion, the abolition of slavery, and the extension of political rights to the freedmen, which are capable of being viewed either as voluntary acts of a free agent, or in another light as "acts of God." But the kind of responsibility typified in the President's dealings with Kellogg and Casey is that which Mr. Morton found it convenient to overlook.

Of the actual condition of South Carolina politics, a correspondent of the Cincinnati *Commercial* gives a picture which is distressingly entertaining. It being generally understood that the thieving of Moses is not now looked upon with favor at Washington, a faction of the Republican party in the State is endeavoring to prevent his renomination. Moses, however, is working for his "second term," and is known to have gained great favor with two important classes in South Carolina—"the convicts and the office-holders." He makes no secret of his intentions, but says that as he has a somewhat bad reputation outside the State, being known as "the robber Moses" and "the great South Carolina thief," he wants an endorsement and a vindication from his constituents. What he chiefly cares for is the nomination; for all accounts agree that, as long as the Republican organization in South Carolina is kept intact, the nominee of the convention is sure of an election. The Demo-

crats have no future as a party before them; and, better than all, the negroes have great confidence in Moses, which must be explained by the negro belief that Grant stands by him, and that he represents freedom, jubilee, and the pardoning power. Notwithstanding the fact that he is a white man, an original rebel, that he is the son of a man said to have fired the first shot on Fort Sumter, and is plundering the State right and left, the negroes are profoundly devoted to him, and are entirely unaffected by the howls and clamor of the mob.

The Alabama Democrats have held their convention, and resolved that the Radicals have so inflamed the passions and prejudices of the negroes as to make it "necessary for the white people to unite and act together in self-defence and for the preservation of white civilization"; that the constitutional and legal rights of all must be preserved inviolate; but that Congress has no constitutional authority "to force the two races into social union or equality." They denounce the Civil Rights Bill passed by the Senate, and "all legislative enactments which attempt to convert into crimes the rules and maxims of our social intercourse, to which we are indebted for the excellence and glory of our civilization, or to punish with degrading penalties our refusal to admit an ignorant and barbarous race to equal participation with our families in our social institutions"; "extend to all our race in every clime the right hand of fellowship"; declare that railroad employees in Alabama ought to have liens for wages; demand and pledge themselves to economy in State affairs, to a complete investigation and public statement of the financial condition of the State, the payment of lawful and the repudiation of unlawful and fraudulent claims.

The municipal election at Vicksburg passed off quietly, and there appears to have been no necessity for the Federal interference so unblushingly asked for by the incompetent lieutenant-governor and afterwards by Governor Ames. Undoubtedly there have been for some time the materials for a riot in the city, and we doubt if five years ago a riot must not have taken place had the circumstances been the same. The facts appear to be that the city government has been in the hands of the negroes and a few white men of Radical politics. It is not a rich municipality, and it is said that its debt has been carried up to one-sixth part of its total valuation, and that there has been no indication that the process would stop. On the contrary, when the Radical party nominated its candidates for last Tuesday's election, it is said to have gone further than before, and named a ticket more pronouncedly Radical and dangerous to the taxpayer than ever. This aroused anger on the part of the whites; and some of the negroes are reported as making inflammatory speeches of a kind well calculated to excite the white Vicksburgers. Both sides began drilling men, but such of their arms as were public property being taken away from them or forced into concealment, large numbers of the citizens, black and white, took to their private revolvers. This armament seems to have had on the whole a quieting effect—as looking so much like business that it might be as well for neither party to begin hostilities. Then came the requests for troops, and to the satisfaction of the country the Texas precedent was followed instead of that of Louisiana and Arkansas, and the request denied. The whites carried the city by 350 majority, about forty blacks voting with them, while it is said that but four whites voted the Radical ticket.

Ex-Senator Pomeroy seems to be just the man for one of the Morton Granger railroad commissioners, with power to negotiate the fixing of fares and freights and to stand between the people and the great moneyed corporations. On the 29th of July, his celebrated York case came up for trial. It will be recollected that eighteen months ago Old Subsidy, as Mr. Pomeroy is called by his friends, was a candidate for the United States Senate. While the contest was going on, he entrusted State Senator York with seven thousand dollars to be carried to a gentleman out of town who wished to establish a national bank. Mr. York, however, took the money into the convention and inform-

ed the presiding officer that Mr. Pomeroy had just given him seven thousand dollars as a bribe to induce him to work for Mr. Pomeroy's election. The truth of Mr. Pomeroy's narrative is what is at issue in the pending trial, but Mr. Pomeroy appears to be in little haste for this ordeal, and in fact is exhausting every device known to the human mind in order not to have any trial whatever, either now, at this present time, or at any remoter period. One of his latest moves is a threat that if "this thing" is not stopped somehow he shall tell what he knows about Kansas politicians. As these are the breed of Republicans who came into power on the last tide of the Ossawatimie, manhood-rights enthusiasm, and as they loved freedom so much that they were not required to have any character or any sense or any knowledge, it is altogether probable that there are among them numerous unctuous rascals for whom "Pom," which is another of his names, could make it very trying. He has made a beginning with the judge before whom his case was called. Yesterday week he offered an affidavit to the effect that as soon as the transaction between him and Mr. York in reference to the national bank got wind in the streets, this judge said to a friend, at the same time grasping him firmly by the hand, "Now we've got the — — old scoundrel where we want him." This was undoubtedly the popular sentiment in Topeka at the time; but the judge denies that he shared it, or so much as allowed himself to form an opinion.

The Postal-Car question has again come to the surface, Mr. Isaac Hinckley, President of the Philadelphia, Wilmington & Baltimore Railroad, announcing his intention to refuse to take the mails except at increased rates, and the Department threatening to get some other road to undertake the work if Mr. Hinckley persists, the ground of their refusal being that the existing law does not authorize any increase of rates. Matters have not yet shown any sign of proceeding to extremities, Mr. Hinckley being of opinion that a notice given by him of his refusal to go on except at higher rates will bind the Department in some way, should they persist in delivering the mails to his road for carriage. The railroads are in the right on the merits of the postal-car question, for there is no doubt that the introduction of the postal-car system, with all the expense of carrying additional cars, filled, not with freight, but mainly with civil servants of the Government travelling free, entitles the roads to much more compensation than they do actually receive. The manner in which Congress has dealt with the question is a curiosity in the way of legislation on a matter of such importance. In 1872, they passed an act increasing the compensation of roads maintaining postal-cars to an extent of fifty per cent.; they then adjourned without making any appropriation to meet the increased rates. In 1873, they repealed the act by passing another on a totally different principle, the result being very unsatisfactory to the roads, and about the same time referred the whole subject to the Senate Transportation Committee, which apparently has not yet found time to look at it.

We have received from a Germantown correspondent a letter in which he comments upon the *Herald* correspondent's recently published theory about the child Ross, kidnapped, as is supposed, some weeks since in Philadelphia. The theory was not dissimilar in its general character to those which often appear a little while after a crime has been committed, and when the police has had time to show that it is at a loss and baffled. On this occasion the theory was that the father of the boy procured his abduction, intending to work on the feelings of friends and relatives so far as to extort from them a large sum of money, ostensibly for purposes of ransom but really for business uses. One of the alleged facts upon which he based this view was, that at the time of the kidnapping the child's mother showed so little maternal feeling as to be away for days enjoying herself at a watering-place. To the story, as thus composed, we last week made a reference in "The Week," affirming neither belief nor disbelief in it, but mentioning

it as one of the few things certain which had appeared on a subject so dark as to puzzle everybody. Our paragraph, however, might have been construed as bearing hard on the parents. We are glad to say that, from accounts given us, any such construction would be a great mistake and, we need not say, a cruel one. As regards the correspondent's "fact" of the watering-place visit, we are assured that the only foundation for it was that Mrs. Ross at the time of the abduction was lying so ill at the seaside that the bad news could not be broken to her, nor could she for some days be moved to her home. We are assured, too, from more than one source, that nobody acquainted with the character of Mr. Ross could entertain the least suspicion of his integrity in this matter. Altogether, this newspaper correspondent would seem to be a gentleman who needs at once the services of the provost-marshal of the *Herald* establishment.

Another week of the Brooklyn investigation has ended without bringing it to a termination, the point principally to be noted being that Mr. Beecher still delays his explanation of his letters. He and his advisers wait, it is said, for the testimony of Mr. F. D. Moulton to be given; they wish to see the whole of the accuser's case, and see what it is that they have to meet before they begin to meet it. But, as we have elsewhere pointed out, the procedure before a tribunal of this kind is not like the procedure before a court of law, and though an almost incredible deal of confusion, contradiction, manifest folly of speech, prevarication, and open falsehood have been thrown about the case at this as at every other stage, there is a general conviction that the delay is unfortunate for Mr. Beecher—and this because the tactics of the defence suggest rather the astuteness of an attorney in the confidence of Jay Gould than the open frankness of an accused and insulted man, whose accuser has fitted to one transaction letters which, as the accused should be eager to show and has publicly declared, are perfectly explicable as fitted to another and totally different transaction. This exculpatory explanation, as the public is inclined to think, it was possible to make at once, and best to make with all speed, without waiting to hear what might be said by Mr. Moulton or any one else, and without taking too much counsel of shifty lawyers. As things now look, the investigation is to result in no conclusive verdict. Mr. Tilton, for his last contribution to the disturbance, has sent a letter to the committee in which he expresses his respect for the individual members of it, but avows entire want of confidence in its powers and its impartiality as a body. He seems to threaten, though he does not actually do so, to take the matter into the courts; refuses to produce the originals of the letters on which he relies in his "statement"; says, however, that he once offered to read them to the committee, or to turn them over to Mr. Winslow, a member of it; charges malice and false reporting on certain persons unnamed; and, finally, makes known his intention to have no more to do with the Monroe-Street tribunal. A worse muddled affair, and one with more of the look of having been subjected to a deal of deliberate muddling, it would be hard to find. It has, moreover, from its beginning, been the dear concern of one of the most wonderful sets of scatterbrains, chatterers, and representatives generally of what we may call chromo-civilization, that any country in any time has had to show. The *dramatis personæ* make a list both amazing and sickening. But, happily, this will be the final end of many of them.

The French Assembly adjourns to-day till the 30th of November. This decision was reached on Friday, after a previous rejection of M. de Malleville's motion for a dissolution, by a vote of 374 nays to 332 yeas; and after a speech from Gambetta against the recess. A motion to raise the state of siege was also disposed of by the decisive negative of 366 to 282. The committee chosen to stand for the Assembly during the recess contains not a single Bonapartist; six Legitimists are united with ten from the Moderate Centre and Right Centre, and nine from the Left. A violent scene occurred in

the Chamber on Sunday, when a Bonapartist delegate declared that the Republic had succumbed before the scorn of honest men. This brought him the lie from the veteran Republican Victor Schoelcher, and the usual tumult ensued, ending in the break-up of the session. One would have supposed that a brief allusion to the mode in which the Empire had succumbed would have been effectual as a retort; but the Assembly took to brandishing its canes, and the threats of duels and personal encounters were ardent and numerous.

The interest in Spanish affairs during the week has centred in the apparent effort of Germany to interfere effectively against a prolongation of the Carlist warfare. The immediate pretext for this action is the reported shooting of one or two German citizens by the Carlists, which leads the German Government to order a squadron into Spanish waters; and a similar motive, or a general understanding between the powers, has determined the sending of the British Mediterranean squadron from Malta to Barcelona, and an Italian frigate to the north coast. Spain and Germany together have called the French Government's attention to the open connivance of its southern provinces with the Carlists; and the wife of Don Carlos is said in consequence to have been obliged to quit Pau. Recognition of the Spanish Republic seems imminent. Austria is pronounced favorable to it, but France will bear more urging. A very gloomy view of the situation in Spain is taken by its ex-king, Amadeo, if an Italian interviewer is to be trusted. Party strife in that country, he said, failed to find a common object in the unity of the country. What frightened him off the throne was "the criminal disunion among the famous saviours of Spain," and the threat of a pronunciamiento with which the generals accompanied every decree and every discussion of their demands. Without foreign intervention, he believed Spain would in two years either become Carlist or be in the power of the Carlists, and intervention would only embitter the struggle.

But little headway has been made by the Brussels Congress, which was at last accounts still busied with preparing its programme. A majority of the members, it is said, are opposed to meddling at all with questions relating to naval warfare, preferring to confine their attention strictly to the mitigation of human suffering in war. This is not only a very proper conclusion if the formal assent of Great Britain to the results of the Congress is desired, as of course it is, but it is also a practical confession of the natural limitations of an international code at the present time. As an Italian journal well points out, the seventy articles proposed for the consideration of the Congress mostly embody regulations which have been already approved and adopted by civilized nations, so that there is really very little difference between the holding of certain abstract sentiments about humanity in war and the common application of them in actual hostilities. On the other hand, says the *Perseveranza*, it is to be feared that these humane considerations, when reduced to obligatory formulas, may tend to make war a still more costly sacrifice than it now is, by impairing the inventiveness whose object and effect is really to shorten war, by enabling combatants to concentrate the greatest possible force of every kind in the least possible time. The proposition, too, that the enemy occupying an invaded territory shall be regarded by the inhabitants as the *de facto* government, assuming at once its authority, functions, and resources, and demanding of right to be respected as was the displaced government, is both repugnant to the spirit of patriotism and impossible to put into execution. Moreover, it rests upon a singularly antiquated assumption, viz., that all wars are, and of necessity must be, purely political, and therefore extraneous to the respective peoples concerned. Nobody can deny that these are weighty objections, and it remains to be seen whether the world is any more ready for a Universal Alliance than it was for a Holy Alliance in the days of Madame Krüdener and the First Alexander.

THE NATIONAL SCHOOLING IN INFLATION.

IT becomes gradually evident that the final battle against inflation has not yet been fought. We would not have any one undervalue the veto of the President; on the contrary, we recognize the fact that it exercised in many ways a salutary effect. It rebuffed the political treachery of Congressmen elected by a party pledge to resumption, who, without any expression of a changed sentiment in the public mind, went over to inflation without even a decent pretext. It let loose for the moment the tongue of the quiet and moral part of the community, and showed that there is a much wider and stronger feeling in favor of maintaining the financial faith of the Government than had been supposed. It also gave to the business intelligence of the people a breathing time in which to recover from the unexpected ambush of Congress, and to look about for men in whom they can really trust. Finally, it called out, at home and abroad, some very clear and strong expressions of condemnation of the action of Congress, and illustrations of the disastrous effects of the inflation scheme, which must have done a great deal to instruct a large variety of persons who had not taken the trouble to think much upon the subject.

Nevertheless, there are in this country, as in every other, a great number of people who are not prepared to be convinced against their will. Their will, moreover, depends upon their interests, real or supposed, and they prefer a temporary personal interest to a permanent general one. The number of persons in a community ready to borrow is always larger than the number ready to lend. In this country, the proportion of persons wishing to borrow money far exceeds that of any other country in the world—not because we have a larger proportion of Jeremy Diddlers here, but because we have an immense number of persons of an ingenious, speculative, and energetic turn of mind teeming with schemes for the rapid acquirement of wealth, and also an immense number of persons possessed of encumbered or unproductive property, who find themselves in a cramped or embarrassed financial condition; and, again, a considerable horde of State, county, and city officials, directly or indirectly interested in public loans, and eager “at this particular time” to have money made easy. In the West and South these persons abound, and the West and South also are rich in “undeveloped resources.” Hence, the West and South are borrowers, and never more importunate borrowers than at the present time. The term “debtor class” we have heretofore shown to be fallacious; but there is such a thing as a borrowing class, and in no country is the borrowing class so large or so active as in this. The persons who compose this class in this country are also just the persons who would naturally have a hand in our abused and degraded system of politics. In numerical strength they do not compare with the industrial, producing, and accumulating classes, but they nevertheless possess a certain political momentum, which when it strikes the small politician in or out of Congress drives him a great way out of his prescribed course. Inflation, to their minds, is an ingenious, roundabout way for the Government to borrow money at an enormous sacrifice and lend it to them without interest. More strictly speaking, they design that every other man’s honestly-acquired dollar shall be clipped, in the expectation that they will come into possession of some of the clippings. A philosopher, studying the peculiar social conditions of the West and South—the restless, unscrupulous, speculative elements of the one; the ignorant, demoralized, impoverished elements of the other—coupled with the debased character of our political machinery, might have predicted the precise condition of affairs that now exists.

Furthermore, the financial history of the last thirteen years shows that we have been unconsciously educating, as it were, the uneducated mind of the country to believe in inflation. The issuance of paper money was in effect nothing more than an unlimited method of borrowing at a more ruinous rate of interest than any government ever before paid for a loan. It is always easier to borrow than to pay, and a spendthrift when he has effected a loan always considers himself richer and not poorer, and regards the times

as good. The ordinary observer saw that paper money was borrowing made easy, but did not see the enormous “shave” which the Government paid for the loan. He also soon discovered, if his farm was mortgaged, that he could sell a dollar’s worth of grain for two nominal dollars, and then pay off his mortgage at precisely fifty cents on the dollar. In hard-money times he was in debt, but when paper money had sent gold up to 200 he got out of debt. Therefore inflation was a very good thing for him. The singular and significant fact in connection with it was that the lenders throughout the country acquiesced in this way of paying debts, and taught borrowers that inflation was a method whereby half of a debt could be made to discharge the whole. The easy, good-natured proclivity of the American mind in such circumstances is to take what it can get and avoid litigation; and there was then a fervent patriotic sentiment in the community, which prompted men to uphold the Government by taking its paper as money, and attaching to this paper a value and a character which very few men believed at heart that it really possessed. If there had been generally the tenacious “standing up for one’s rights” that so arbitrary a measure when applied retroactively would have invoked in ordinary times; if men had sturdily maintained that the legal-tender act could not do away with existing obligations, and that Congress had no power to confiscate a part of their property and pay it away as a part of the discount for a national loan, we may be sure that the first legal-tender decision would have been well-nigh unanimous, and that the second would never have come against the decided moral sense of the community. But the troubled era of the rebellion was no time for “standing up for one’s rights,” and nearly all men preferred that values should be temporarily unsettled, and individual losses sustained, rather than that the slightest additional embarrassment should be cast upon the Government. Nevertheless, the financial instruction of the hour was, that through the medium of Government paper fifty cents could be made to pay off a dollar’s indebtedness.

So long as there was what might be termed a falling paper market—i.e., so long as gold kept rising—this process for paying debts grew easier and easier. It was easier to pay seventy-five cents on the dollar than one hundred; it was easier to pay fifty than seventy-five; it was still easier to pay forty. If Government paper had gone on becoming plenteous and cheap until it reached the cheapness of Confederate “graybacks,” paying one’s debts would have been a trivial amusement instead of what it always had been, the chief concern and burden of a business life. But when the long lane turned, and paper began to rise in the market and approximate to the value of gold, then the old-time difficulties of borrowing and paying began to return. As fresh dilutions of paper during the war had made paying an easy task, it was natural for men after the war to infer that fresh dilutions would make it easy again. The nation, too—that is to say, the community as a whole—had stopped its easy-going course of borrowing and spending, and was engaged in the disagreeable, grinding task of retrenching and paying. Of course, this operation could not go on without affecting more or less everybody in the community, and necessarily affecting them disagreeably. Of course, such a period was just the time for the political demagogue to come upon the stage, and inform everybody that through the ingenious invention of paper-money we could go on *ad infinitum* borrowing and never paying. The story of the man who gave his note and then thanked heaven that that debt was paid, our Butlers and Mortons have been repeating in sober earnest, assuring people that it is only necessary that the notes be given by the community collectively, and not by its individual members, and then the debts will be paid, and we can continue to give as many more notes as we please. It may be doubted whether there is anybody who really does believe this nonsense, but the course pursued by our business community from the first has been such that every national borrowing has redounded to the immediate advantage of every individual borrower, and there are men enough who perceive that and are ready enough to seize upon any such temporary advantage.

Now, what has been the course pursued by the business community—that is, by the men who have had money to lend or credits to give? With the floods of Government paper during the war, money was plentiful—that is, paper was cheap; and the ease with which it was acquired made men careless as to the manner in which they invested it. Accordingly, the West, which is always a borrower, was not slow to perceive that loans could be readily procured to carry on its speculative enterprises. It was also clearly enough perceived that fresh dilutions would make it all the easier to repay the nominal amount borrowed. So far as the hand-to-hand transactions of daily life were involved, the fluctuations of paper were comparatively unimportant; but when it came to “time transactions,” where the rise or fall of paper might exceed all reasonable calculation, business probity required that the real value of the thing loaned should be definitely settled and mutually understood. Instead of this, the lender as a rule speculated upon the chances of paper approximating to gold before the debt should mature, and the borrower speculated upon the chances, first, that he would make a great deal of money out of his venture, and, second, that if he did not, inflation would come along and tide him over the bar of payment. He was thus educated to be an inflationist, and a hundred other men looking on at the same time were taught the same lesson.

It is also a noticeable fact that what gold-bearing obligations there are in the community singularly lead to the same result. The gold-paying debtors here are the Government and a few corporations. Any ordinary man holding \$10,000 of such securities cannot help hoping in his inmost soul that when his coupons become payable, gold will happen to be up. His baker's and butcher's and grocer's bills do not fluctuate with the price of gold, and sometimes when his gold coupons have brought him the fewest greenbacks he finds that beef and coffee are higher than they were before. Thus we have insensibly arranged everything so as to make ourselves inflationists against the conscious dictates of our common-sense. It is preached with vigor that our future prosperity requires that we should retrench, and stop borrowing, and redeem our national promises to pay; but practically it is added, for the benefit of enterprising borrowers, that they may vote themselves loans if they choose, and may again vote how little they will pay upon them when they become due.

ONE OF THE INDIAN OUTBREAKS.

THERE are at this time two sets of serious Indian disturbances in the West, each of which may develop into a formidable war. One centres in the expedition that General Custer is leading into the Black Hills; the other extends over the region watered by the tributaries of the Arkansas and Red Rivers. It is with the latter that we are now particularly concerned.

The Indian country lying east of the Rocky Mountains and south of the Platte River was formerly, in a general way, under the control of the Arapahoes, Cheyennes, Kiowas, and Comanches. Inheritance or force had given those plains into their possession, and they held them against all comers, until they were forced upon reservations where they are detained by treaties, generally signed under the yoke, whose observance, on their part, is secured by the pressure of military propinquity. There are none of them grown to manhood who do not recall to mind the time when they could move without hindrance, save as they feared their savage fellow-rovers, over the whole expanse between the Rio Grande and the Missouri. To be confined to reservations, however spacious we may consider them, is galling to men whose former life was as uncontrolled as that of the beasts of the chase; and it is not to be supposed that they acquiesced in this arrangement from a sense of justice, or that they love the new régime presided over by their conquerors. A few of the elders who have acquired all the fame that the war-path can give, and who now, by the accumulation of ponies, are gaining that sort of power that wealth always bestows, may counsel peace; but the very reputation that gives weight to their advice is also an incentive to ambitious warriors to emulate their prowess. Such, for

instance, is Little Raven of the Arapahoes. He is a conservative whose influence for some years has been for peace with the whites. But he possesses the influence because of his record as a warrior and of his present pastoral possessions. Ambition, therefore, is a constant spur to the younger men, and they chafe under restraint.

To the mass of the reserve Indians, subsistence without labor and the fear of punishment must be for many years the effective restraining influence. That they are susceptible of elevation, chiefly through their youth, the history of the Choctaws, Cherokees, Creeks, and Seminoles abundantly shows; but the active men of the lately roving tribes cannot be transformed at once, if ever, into tillers of the soil nor into herdsmen. The reward that steady industry offers has no charm for them. They have no present desire for such a life, and they will only see its advantages, if at all, after long years of careful training. On the other hand, they are savages, and they delight in the pleasures of savages. Civilized men admit the fascination that belongs to war and the chase—kindred pursuits; to savages they are the *summa bona* of existence. But beyond war for its own sake, revenge, which to the uncivilized man comprehends and is synonymous with both justice and honor, constantly appeals for gratification. Christianity and law are gradually introducing among some of us a different standard of action, but “an eye for an eye” is the demand that simple self-preservation insists upon. Wherever Christianity is not in force, vengeance or punishment, under what guise we choose, must be admitted or there is a direct invitation to extermination. Revenge is not dishonorable with the savage any more than it was with the ancients, nor should it be so regarded in the absence of Christian teaching. It is an application of justice that he directly appreciates and is swift to employ. As the superior, we should be slow to provoke him, and be prompt to inflict condign punishment when deserved; for the average savage looks upon forgiveness without a penalty as cowardice. Added to these considerations, we have the principle that successful robbery from an alien is meritorious; exactly as our ancestry of the North Sea, the marches of Scotland, and the heights of the Rhine believed and practised.

These fundamental facts must always be borne in mind when discussing the Indian question. They create a persistent and powerful *vis a tergo* impelling the Indian to what we call lawlessness. Upon our part we should guard against the outbreak by the most scrupulous justice in removing all excuse or temptation, and by the constant exhibition of power to inspire respect. When this is done, the active moral agencies may be employed with happy results. But, as among the poor of our cities, good works must sustain the suffering before good words will be heeded. Unfortunately the experience of these tribes is no exception to the general rule that has characterized our Indian policy. A single example from those stamped upon their memories will illustrate the degree of affectionate regard in which they may hold us.

In 1864, a very large number of friendly Cheyennes came in to the neighborhood of Fort Lyon by the invitation of the proper authorities, and were subsisted by them for some time with the ostensible purpose of distinguishing them from hostile Indians, and of affording them the protection of the United States flag. After several months a large number of their able-bodied men were sent out for buffalo, and in their absence Colonel Chivington, of the Colorado Volunteers, who was perfectly aware of the relation which these people sustained to the Government, with about a thousand cavalry suddenly attacked the village, two-thirds of whose population were women and children, destroyed it and massacred the community. They were slaughtered without regard to age or sex. He reported, “It may, perhaps, be unnecessary for me to state that I captured no prisoners. Between five and six hundred Indians were left dead upon the field.” More than this, their bodies were mutilated with shocking barbarity. Comment cannot magnify the horror. This man has never been punished, because the crime was regarded as a “military” offence, and his term of service having expired shortly afterward he was considered beyond jurisdiction. And to

this day numerous frontiersmen are to be found, men of influence as well as of the baser sort, who hold Chivington's treachery as an exploit to be emulated. This is, unfortunately, only a natural outgrowth of the sentiments held by many of the settlers on the border. They look upon the Indians as absolutely without rights, and they are only restrained by the fear of retaliation from acting upon this theory. As a consequence, many of the outrages upon the red men never appear in print, or, if they do, they are held up for imitation; while the atrocities of which white men are the victims are dwelt upon and magnified. Border public opinion, therefore, is generally in a receptive state when anything to the disadvantage of the lower race is concerned.

And, indeed, when we abandon justice, and especially charity, there is very little that draws us to the Indians. They are savages; and that means half-clad wretches who are dirty, lazy, repulsive beggars, who will steal on slight provocation, who have few virtues and many vices, and who are fearful as enemies. When at war they are diabolical. And yet they are not really devils, but are simply a low grade of heathen men. It is obvious, therefore, that for their own protection, as well as for that of the whites, they must be limited to certain bounds, and that these must be kept inviolate and the treaty obligations be strictly observed. But as the reservations are generally well selected, they excite the cupidity of some and the jealousy of others, who are not slow to make such encroachments as a lax civil power winks at. Whiskey-traders will enter them, or will skirt their borders, dealing out a poison whose immediate effect upon the Indian is to make him a furious maniac. Temporary squatters cut timber or trap, if they think they have any chance of escape. Horse-thieves infest them in gangs, alternately provoking the Indians to anger and tempting them to crime. It is difficult merely to outline their various wrongs. One of the old and just Indian grievances, one of their excuses for their early assaults upon travellers on the Santa Fé trail and the Platte route, was the unnecessary killing of buffalo. The protection of the buffalo and the utilization of the entire carcass when slain is a strong point in their character, and its wanton destruction excites great indignation. With the spread of settlements the grazing limits have yearly grown less, and now that railroads penetrate the heart of the range very many thousands of these animals are annually slaughtered, both in and out of season, with no intention or possibility on the hunters' part of taking a tenth part of each. Some shoot them for their tongues, some for their hides (not for robes, but as a heavy leather). Some actually cut the shaggy hair to mix fraudulently with coarse Mexican wool; some ship the hind-quarters East for food. In certain localities the dead may be seen as thick as horses on a battle-field, polluting the pure air with a horrible stench. It is understood that in the last treaty with the tribes before mentioned, it was provided that buffalo should not be hunted by the whites in the country south of the Arkansas. If this article exists (and they believe that it does), the whites no more regard it than do the buffaloes themselves respect the parallels of latitude. The hunters are ubiquitous, and the herds are fast being destroyed. Indeed, systematic extermination of this animal is seriously advocated by many as the speediest solution of the Indian problem, on the ground that when they are gone the Indians must starve or become perfectly docile. Meanwhile this flagrant violation of their treaty rights excites their bitter anger, and last year they sent direct messages that if their cattle (the buffalo) were thus hunted they would compensate themselves among the white men's herds, which are now so extensive and valuable on the upper Arkansas.

The matter of treaty-making is another of the difficult features of the problem. The tribal organization approaches a pure democracy. The authority of the chiefs is mainly one of influence. Any man who has the ability may lead a band, and it will increase or lessen with his varying fortunes. And as individuals adhere or recede at pleasure, it results that they will, in a great degree, follow their inclination in more grave matters. We have an illustration at

this time in the very tribes that are our theme. The latest advices say that some of their young men are on the war-path, but that the principal chiefs are peaceful. But if one or more of these bands are successful the tide may swell until it sweeps away the tribe. To control these younger men is of the utmost importance and of the utmost difficulty. During the six years that have passed since they have been at war as a community, a large number of youths have grown fit for the field. Their entire education, moral and physical, has taught them to revere the successful warrior; and when these warriors counsel peace, they strip off their own decorations and their only titles to respect. Ignorant of the vast power of the country, they measure it by the few troops or the occasional herdsman that they see, and boldly enter the only road to pelf and place that is open. When their chiefs come back from Washington, the witchery that they seem to have undergone is explained by the "bad medicine" of the whites, and they are perfectly sceptical of the strength of a nation whose warriors, scattered in little bands, they can count upon their fingers. And they are the more ready to infringe a treaty from feeling that day by day it is violated by the other party.

But, after all, it is perhaps not too much to say that notwithstanding the predatory instincts of the younger men, many of the general Indian wars are directly incited by designing white men. The concentration of troops and the purchase and transportation of supplies involve the expenditure of so much money that it is often a matter of great financial importance to the community in which it can be made to occur. It is difficult, perhaps impossible, positively to prove such crimes, and to connect together cause and effect, but unprejudiced observers often believe it true. It is beyond doubt that highly exaggerated and often pure, fictitious reports of outrages are transmitted with sinister design, while, as before remarked, the other side of the picture is kept veiled. We are not attempting to conceal the wrongs which the Indians commit. They sin as well as are sinned against. To appropriate personal property, especially when a degree of glory attaches to the act, to raid into Texas, which from the earliest Spanish times appears to have been looked upon as a legitimate field for forage, are constant temptations to which they often yield. And when they once fairly go to war, they are such frightful barbarians, they commit such fiendish outrages—outrages that cannot be decently spoken of—upon men and women and children, that the heart becomes steeled, and nothing short of extermination seems endurable. It is then that every one who has personal knowledge of their deviltries agrees to the *mot* that "the good Indians are dead Indians," and it is because they have thus suffered in their families or in their ancestry that we often find such implacable hatred towards them in men otherwise of good repute.

If the sparks of war that already exist are fanned into a flame, it will burn over a region about equal in extent to the four Middle States. To guard this tract, and to drive the enemy to and keep them on their reservation, there are about two thousand soldiers, of whom perhaps fifteen hundred (one-half being mounted) are available for active operations. The guerilla tactics of the savage practically neutralize many times their own numbers. We have referred only to those tribes south of the Arkansas, and have taken no account of the fierce and numerous Sioux of the North. But besides the Cheyennes and Arapahoes in the Indian Territory, there are considerable detachments from each of these in Wyoming living in close relations with the Sioux, but in frequent communication with their Southern kinsmen. It is not impossible that these may be the links to unite both groups of Indians in a general war, should decided hostilities occur at either end of the chain.

EVIDENCE ABOUT CHARACTER.

THERE has been during the week a loud and increasing demand for the application of the legal process of discovering truth to the Tilton-Beecher case. People ask that it be carried into court, not only because all witnesses might thus be compelled to appear and testify, but because appa-

rently there is, in the minds of many, a peculiar virtue in "the rules of evidence" used by lawyers. Witnesses examined under these rules are supposed to receive from them a strong stimulus to veracity and explicitness, while they at once expose prevarication or concealment. One newspaper eulogist went so far the other day as to pronounce the rules the product of the wisdom of all ages, beginning with the Phœnicians and coming down to our own time. There is, however, only one good reason that we know of for carrying the Beecher case or any similar case into court, and that is the obvious one, that the courts only can compel those who are supposed to know anything about a matter in litigation to appear and state it. If the case were transferred to the City Hall, therefore, we should undoubtedly have a far finer treat, from the purulent and sensational point of view, than we are likely to get from the Brooklyn committee or any other extra-judicial body. All the scandal-mongers—both the effusive, fussy kind, who now furnish hints and nods and winks of "confessions" and "statements" to the reporters; and the sly kind, who retire to their "coantry seats" and keep dark—would, if they could be caught within the State, be furnished with an opportunity of producing in a conspicuous way a great deal of dirty gossip. But we do not know of any other advantage which can be claimed for a trial in court, in a case like that now pending, over a trial before a well-selected lay tribunal. We had reason to point out once before, under somewhat similar circumstances, that "the rules of evidence" in use in our courts are not, as too many persons seem to suppose, deductions from the constitution of the human mind, or, in other words, natural rules for the discovery of truth under all conditions. On the contrary, they are a system of artificial presumptions created for the use of a tribunal of a somewhat low order of intelligence, and are intended to produce certain well-defined and limited results, which the law considers generally beneficial. They have, that is to say, grown up for the use of the jury. The large number of exclusions which they contain are due simply to a desire to prevent the jury's being confused by kinds of testimony which they are not supposed to have learning or acumen enough to weigh. If any one will go into the City Hall and listen to the trial of even a trifling cause, he will find that the proceedings consist largely in the attempts of one lawyer to have certain facts laid before the jury and the attempts of the other to prevent it, the judge sitting as arbiter between them and applying the rules of admission and exclusion to each of these facts as it comes up. If he examines, too, in each instance what it is that is thus pertinaciously offered and pertinaciously opposed, he will find that it almost invariably has *something* to do with the controversy before the court—it may be near or more remote—but still something. Consequently it has, logically, a certain bearing on the case, or is, under the constitution of the human mind, proper evidence. When the judge says it is irrelevant, he does not mean that it is logically irrelevant; he means simply that it has been declared irrelevant on certain grounds of expediency by the system of jurisprudence which he administers. He refuses to let it go to the jury because he thinks it would befog them or turn their attention away from the "legal issue," or, in other words, from the one little point on which the law compels the plaintiff and defendant to concentrate their dispute, in order to render it triable at all by the peculiar tribunal which the Anglo-Saxon race has chosen for the protection of its rights.

It follows that our rules of evidence are unknown on the European continent and in every country in which courts are composed of judges only—that is, of men with special training and capacity for the work of weighing testimony—or in which the legal customs have been created by such courts. There the litigants follow the natural order, and carry with them before the bench everything that has any relation to the case whatever, and leave the court to examine it and allow it its proper force. Our own changes in the law of evidence are all in this direction. The amount of excluded testimony—that is, of testimony which we are afraid to trust the jury with—has been greatly diminished during the last few years, and, considering the growth of popular intelligence, properly diminished. The tendency of legislation now is towards letting the jury hear everybody—the plaintiff and defendant, the prisoner, the wife, the husband, and the witness with a pecuniary interest in the result of the trial—and put its own estimate on what the testimony amounts to. But nevertheless, even now, who is there that has ever watched the preparation of a cause for trial who has not listened to lamentations over the difficulty or impossibility of getting this or that important fact before the jury? or has not witnessed elaborate precautions, on one side or another, to prevent some fact from getting before the jury? The skill of a counsel in examining or cross-examining a witness, for instance, is shown almost as much by what he avoids bringing out as by what he brings out, and no witness is allowed to volunteer any statement, lest he should tell something which, however pertinent in reality, the rules pronounce inadmissible.

Now, rules of this kind are singularly unsuited to the conduct of enquiries touching character. It is true the law provides a process nominally for the vindication of character, called an action for libel, but the remedy it supplies is not a vindication properly so called, but a sum of money as a kind of penalty on the libeller, not for having assailed you, but for not having been able to prove his case under the rules of evidence. In a suit for libel, too, the parties fight their battle in the strict legal order—the plaintiff, that is to say, stands by and challenges the defendant to produce his proofs, and then fights bitterly through his counsel to keep as much of the proof out as he can. He supplies no evidence himself that is not strictly called for, and proffers no explanation that does not seem necessary to procure an award of pecuniary damages, and takes all the pains possible to bring confusing influences to bear on the jury. When we consider, too, that the jury is composed of men who may be said to be literally called in from the street, without the slightest regard to their special qualifications for the conduct of any enquiry, and that they are apt to represent popular passions and prejudices in all conspicuous and exciting cases, we easily see why a trial by a jury, under the common-law rules of evidence, is not the process through which a high-minded man, who sought not for "damages," but to keep his reputation absolutely spotless in the estimation of his neighbors, would naturally seek his vindication.

It cannot be too often said, in these times when great reputations are so often assailed and so often perish, that nobody who has not deliberately chosen the life of a stoical recluse is justified either in refusing to defend his reputation, or in defending it by technical processes if any others are within his reach. It is, of course, open to any man to say that he cares nothing for the opinion of mankind, and will not take the trouble to influence it in any manner in regard to himself. But, if he says so, he is bound not to identify with himself, in any manner, either great interests or great causes. If he makes himself the champion of other people's rights, or the exponent of important principles, or has through any power of his achieved an influence over other people's minds sufficiently great to make it appear that certain doctrines or ideas must stand or fall by him, he has surrendered his freedom in all that regards the maintenance of his fame. It is no longer his only to maintain. It has become, as it were, embodied in popular morality, been made the basis of popular hopes, and a test under which popular faith or approval is bestowed on a great variety of ways and means of living. Such a man is bound to defend himself from the instant at which he finds the assaults on him begin to tell on the public conception of his character. Dignified reserve is a luxury in which it is not permitted to him to indulge; and when he comes to defend himself, it must not be with the calculating shrewdness of the strategist or tactician. The only rules of evidence of which he can claim the benefit are the laws of the human mind. The tribunal, too, before which he seeks reparation should be not what the state supplies only, but the very best he can reach, and it should, if possible, be composed of men with no motive for saving him and with no reason for hating him, and with such training and experience as may best fit them for the task of weighing his enemy's charges and his own excuses and explanations. His course before such a tribunal, too, should be marked by ardor rather than by prudence. He should chafe under delay, clamor for investigation and invite scrutiny, and put away from him all advisers whose experience is likely to incline them to chicanery or make them satisfied with a technical victory. Such men are always dangerous in delicate cases. He should not wait for his accuser to get in all his case if the substantial part of it is already before the court; because his answer ought not, as in a court of law, to cover the complaint simply and no more. It ought to contain a plain, unvarnished tale of the whole transaction, and not those parts only which the accusation may have touched, because his object is not only to wrest a verdict of "not proven" from his judges, but to satisfy even the timid and sensitive souls whose faith in their idols is so large a part of their moral life, not only that he is not guilty, but that he never even inclined towards guilt.

THE COMTE DE PARIS'S HISTORY OF THE REBELLION.

PARIS, July 17.

WHEN the Comte de Paris was still in exile, he inhabited a house at Twickenham called York House, which is one of the simplest of the cluster of mansions on the banks of the Thames. I spent many hours in his library, which was full of modern books, and I noticed that an immense space had been allotted to all the documents on America—maps, official reports, surveys, etc. Any book which appeared on America (I do not speak of that *America vetustissima* which is only cultivated by bibliophiles, but of modern America) was sure to find its way to the shelves of this library, and, what is more, to obtain a good binding. The Comte de

Paris, who had much leisure and who is naturally of a serious and laborious disposition, had undertaken a great work. He had been a soldier in the army of the North, and had played a very creditable part in the unfortunate campaign of the Virginian Peninsula. He had followed day after day from Europe, after his return to England, the movement of the armies in which he had left many friends, and which had been organized under his eyes. He received from all sides very valuable documents, sometimes original notes and letters; he resolved to write a comprehensive history of the Civil War in America. The task was truly difficult; and I shall astonish many of your readers if I tell them that the Comte de Paris now thinks that his work cannot be well completed if he does not write nine volumes in octavo; he had hoped at first to be able to do it in seven volumes.

Modern wars cannot be written like the campaigns of the ancients. Think of how much Caesar has condensed in that immortal volume of 'Commentaries,' which occupies so little place in the library; and Caesar even finds the time to report the speeches which he makes to the Gallic chieftains, and their answers. But you must reflect that, after all, there was so much difference between the legions of Caesar and the unruly armies of the Gauls, that the result was a mere question of time and patience. Caesar wrote for the Romans, and the Romans cared little for the history of the factions of the Gauls; it was enough for them to know that their armies were triumphant, that their legions moved freely over large territories, over unknown rivers and mountains, to the shores of unknown seas. The world has somewhat contracted since, though new continents have been discovered. We know something of every part of the world: *humani nil a me alienum puto*. We are also more analytical; the cultivation of science has become so general that we are no longer satisfied with history when it is not somewhat scientific—that is to say, when it does not show us the reasons and the development of events. We do not sit down before history as we should before a drama; we step on the stage, go behind the curtain, see the rehearsal, talk to the actors. Take, for instance, the 'History of the Crimean War' by Kinglake, and see how much space is assigned to the history of the causes of the war, to the minute analysis of the character of his principal personages. The battle of the Alma might be told in half a page; it occupies a whole chapter.

If I am not mistaken, history can only be made concise when its elements are already perfectly known. Hundreds of volumes have been written, for instance, on the campaigns of the First Napoleon; each of these volumes, let us suppose, brought out some new fact, some new document. New information cannot be conveyed in a short space, it must be exact, it must be complete, and therefore it cannot be abridged. The pioneers of history, if I may use the word, cannot well spare their work; it is only when by their efforts the truth is perfectly known, when all doubts are removed, that some great historian can come and separate from the collected information what is most important and write some concise work, which becomes classical.

There are very few, on the whole, of such classical histories; we must not speak of the ancients, as in their case we are too happy to preserve anything which has been respected by time; but can Voltaire's 'History of the Age of Louis XIV.' be considered as the *dernier mot* of the history of that age? Hardly so; a very remarkable work it is, but far from perfect. Macaulay's 'History of England' approaches perfection in some parts, in others it is very feeble. I am convinced that the historical works of M. Thiers will be completely neglected in a few years, especially the part in which M. Thiers probably takes the most pride—I mean the account of Napoleon's campaigns. There is more to be learned in a few pages of Jomini than in all M. Thiers's fantastic descriptions of battles.

The Comte de Paris has attempted to give a complete picture of the United States during the war of secession, but from the first two volumes of his work which have just appeared, and which have been very favorably received, it is evident that the history of the military events will have the principal place in this elaborate picture. The first volume opens with a very complete history of the American army. It is certainly one of the most singular anomalies that the American people, being essentially pacific, should have the best military school in the world, or one which can compete successfully with the best, such as the Polytechnic at Paris. It was a happy idea, in the circumstances in which America was placed, to make, so to speak, an army of good officers, to form the *cadre* without filling it. The *regulars* of West Point receive at first the most complete scientific education which can be given; I have myself examined the programmes and the text-books at West Point, and it seems to me that they leave nothing to be desired. The practical difficulties with which the officers have immediately to contend as soon as they leave the military school, the responsibility which is often thrown on them, the extraordinary life which many have to lead, all tend to give them new qualities, and to form a body of men skilled

in every one of the sciences which constitute the art of war. This was well seen in your Mexican war, which was, speaking purely from the military point of view, a sort of miracle of daring, of sagacity, of skill. Can anything be more wonderful than the campaign of a small army which never numbered 14,000 men, and which was able to go from Vera Cruz to Mexico?

The Comte de Paris tells in a most graphic manner the history of this Mexican war, and makes his readers familiar with the names which were to become so famous during the war of secession. General Scott was the first master of Lee, of McClellan, of Beauregard, of Sumner, of Kearney, of many others. If the Mexican war was the brilliant period of the history of the small American army organized in 1815, the army continued always to improve, owing to its incessant wars against the Indians, especially against the Seminoles. The reports of the officers published by the Ministry of War will form, some say, the best archives of the colonization of a great part of the continent, and will become as precious as the voyages of the first Jesuits in Canada or in the Valley of the Mississippi. In the deserts and solitudes of America a new type of officer was formed—the soldier became a geographer, a geologist, a botanist, and an astronomer. All the powers of observation found their exercise. In my contact with the old West Pointers during the great civil war, I was always struck by their peculiar manner, very different from that of our European officers; they seemed more like civilians, like men I would not say of the world, but men of business, caring very little for outward effect, for the trumpery of uniform, and very attentive to the realities which constitute the welfare and the security of an army. America owes much to this phalanx, which was almost unknown and by many despised before the hour of danger came. When the war came to its end, it was found that all the heaven-born generals were gone, and that hardly anything remained in the staff of the armies but these men who had at first been swept aside by the tide of civilians, of politicians, of enthusiasts. They had, merely because they were the most capable, been chosen one by one as the leaders; they had organized, reorganized, made order out of chaos, and victory out of defeat. Let America always preserve her military school and her typical little army, her scientific army, which in an emergency can make generals of its colonels, colonels of its captains, and, I may almost add, captains of its soldiers.

Coming to the causes of the war, the Comte de Paris does not hesitate to say that slavery was the only cause of hostility between the North and South: "There was no real difference of origin between them. All those which the South invoked when she despaired of obliging Europe to help her, and wished to move its sympathies, were purely imaginary. She resorted to fanciful genealogies when, showing France its ancient colony of New Orleans, she said that it was half-French, and when, turning to the side of the English aristocracy, she evoked the memory of the Cavaliers exiled by Cromwell, and opposed them to the Yankees, whom she attempted to represent as a congregation of Germans and Irish. In reality, the Anglo-Saxon race was dominant in the South and the North. It was absorbing rapidly those which had preceded it, and which still furnished many immigrants. . . . No commercial interest separated the South from the rest of the States. Great rivers united all the centre of the continent in one great basin, and all the products converged in the principal artery of the Mississippi, the key of which was in the hands of the Southern States. These States, absorbed in the cultivation of cotton and of the sugar-cane, bought from the West the meat and the cereals which they did not produce in sufficient quantity." I still remember articles published by M. Michel Chevalier in the *Journal des Débats* and in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, in which this celebrated economist attempted to prove that the war was in reality one between free-trade and protection. I had some difficulty at the time in convincing the able editor of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* that this was a wrong view of the portentous events which were taking place in America. I was constantly met with the famous argument, which was also urged by Mr. Gladstone, by the Duke of Argyll, and by many English liberals: "But why does not the Northern Government make a crusade against slavery?" They did not see that the aggression had not come from the North, but from the South; that the North was fighting for the Constitution, and in consequence was trammelled by the Constitution itself. The progress of events, however, soon showed to the world that the North could not conquer the South without striking at the institution of slavery. All the readers of the Comte de Paris's work will find a very luminous and just exposition of the difficulties of the North. The writer shows very candidly his sympathies for the liberal cause; and such is the passion for wrong which lingers at all times in some minds, that this part of his work has already been attacked with some bitterness by those who cannot even now be consoled for the defeat of the cause of slavery.

The Comte de Paris was so closely concerned on the staff of McClellan

with the organization of the first armies of the North, that much interest must be attached, in a military point of view, to his narration of these early efforts, to his account of the battle of Bull Run, to his description of the war material, of the commissariat system. His second volume is filled with the story of the events which preceded the capitulation and recapture of Lexington, Mo., with the account of the battle of Ball's Bluff, of the first naval battles, of the capture of the Confederate Commissioners. Then we come to Donelson and Pea Ridge, to Shiloh, to Roanoke, to Hampton Roads. This second volume is almost exclusively military. It ends with the defeat of Jackson and the disembarkment of McClellan at Fort Monroe. The author naturally tries to excuse many of the faults of McClellan on the ground of mistakes committed by the War Department at Washington. His last pages are a sort of preface to the bloody expedition of the Peninsula. We must leave him here, and thank him for the clear and complete exposition of the events of the beginning of the war. What astonished most the Doge of Venice in Versailles was to see himself there. We might say likewise that what pleases us most in this book is to see it written by one of the momentary actors of the war, who could best afford to be quietly contented with the triumphs of the cause which he had gallantly espoused.

Notes.

THE bibliography of cremation as a mode of interment, and of related subjects, is given in Bulletin No. 30 of the Boston Public Library. When the works mentioned are not to be found in that library, it is so stated; the Astor Library being most frequently referred to.—A German version, by Edward Leyh, of Joaquin Miller's "Arizonian," the first and the best of his "Songs of the Sierras," has appeared in Baltimore (Fischer & Rossmässler) in paper covers.—Dr. David P. Holton, M.D., 19 Great Jones Street, is preparing a work to be called "Reminiscences of the Fifteenth Ward of the City of New York," for which he solicits material from all persons who were living there some forty years ago. Dr. Holton came to the city in 1834, and a portion of his reminiscences has already been given in an autobiographical sketch read in May before the N. Y. Genealogical and Biographical Society.—Stechert & Wolff, No. 2 Bond Street, will be the agents for this country of the long-awaited *Deutsche Revue*, which is designed to be a Teutonic *Revue des Deux Mondes*. It will, however, be published monthly instead of fortnightly, the first number appearing in October. The subscription price is \$8 80 gold.—No. 7 of Trübner's "Catalogue of Choice, Rare, and Curious Books" offers for the trifling sum of £300 a fine collection of caricatures relating to the Franco-Prussian war (1870 to the end of 1872), in 9 vols. folio, the ninth being composed of Rochefort's *Lanterne* and *Mot d'Ordre*, *Pyat's Vengeur*, and other Communistic and pre-Communistic sheets; a collection of the judgments of the European press on Napoleon III. in 1873, with illustrations, in 3 vols. folio; and English caricatures of Napoleon III., from 1849 to 1872, in 3 vols. 4to. On another page of the catalogue are advertised several very old cook-books, one in MS., which ought to throw some light on the origin of plum-pudding.—J. R. Osgood & Co. have republished, in book-form, the excellent and now timely articles contributed by Gen. Francis A. Walker to the *North American* for April, 1873 ("The Indian Question"), and the *International Review* for May, 1874 ("Indian Citizenship"); together with an extract from Gen. Walker's report for 1872, as United States Commissioner of Indian Affairs, and a colored map. This extract gives an account of the numbers, location, and general condition of every important tribe and band, and will be found of permanent value for reference, as well as, in connection with the foregoing articles, for a right understanding of the vexed "Indian Question" which gives the book its title. But little space would have been required for the reproduction of the tabular list of Indian reservations printed in Gen. Fry's "Outline Descriptions of the Posts in the Military Division of the Missouri" (Chicago, 1872), which gives the name of the reservation and of the tribe occupying it, the population, area in acres and square miles, and the date of the treaty or law establishing the reserve.—Henry Holt & Co. have in press a volume of *modern vers de société*, gathered from Locker, Landor, Swinburne, Præd, Thackeray, etc.

—Scribner, Armstrong & Co. have now for sale Whitaker's "Reference Catalogue of Current Literature." This does for the English publishers what Mr. Leypoldt's "Trade-List Annual" had already done for American, setting an example the value of which was quickly appreciated on the other side. It seems a miracle of binding, but we have an entirely "practicable" volume of 3,200 pages 8vo, weighing seven pounds. It contains 111 catalogues, embracing "probably not less than 50,000 full titles"; and its utility is greatly enhanced by a topical index of some 14,000 articles, guided by which

any book worth the trouble can pretty certainly be discovered if sought for. On this account, it deserves a place in every public library as a book of reference. An edition of 4,000 copies was printed, and disposed of in advance of publication, and we presume the number for sale in this country is limited, over and above the subscriptions which Mr. Leypoldt has been for some time receiving in Mr. Whitaker's behalf. Booksellers not more than readers are under obligations to both of these gentlemen, Mr. Whitaker's title suggesting a usefulness which pertains equally to Mr. Leypoldt's work, or at least in the measure of the thoroughness of its index.

—The Boston *Transcript* published last week what it called "a carefully arranged statement showing how the John Brown Song was ushered into notice"—a statement intended to set at rest the long dispute as to the authorship of that production. We do not know whether it fairly accomplishes so much or not, for a more confused and muddled account of anything has seldom fallen under our notice. So far as we can make out, the true history of the song is as follows: When, in the spring of 1861, the Twelfth Massachusetts Volunteers (commanded by Colonel Fletcher Webster, a son of Daniel Webster) was in quarters on one of the islands in Boston Harbor, some of the men, assisted by some of their visitors from the city, "amused themselves by adapting the words,

' John Brown's body lies mouldering in the grave,
His soul's marching on.
Glory, glory, hallelujah,
His soul's marching on,'

to an air of agreeable effect." This verse, says the *Transcript* correspondent (Mr. C. Sprague Hall, who is the reputed author of the song), was at that time the only verse known. That he was the writer of it, he does not say; indeed, our inference from his way of speaking about it is, that he did not write it and does not mean to be understood as claiming it for his property. As for the air to which the words were adapted, Mr. Hall says that he by-and-by was told by a Mr. Greenleaf, an organist resident in Charlestown, Massachusetts, that, as music was wanted for the words, he being then on a visit to the island recalled to mind and applied a certain tune. This we take to have been the tune which has since become so well known, and which Mr. Greenleaf found to give great satisfaction. Mr. Greenleaf in his conversation with Mr. Hall added that the song was assisted to obtain vogue by the fact that there was in the regiment a soldier who bore the name of John Brown; but we imagine that this piece of good luck it could scarcely have failed of in whatever regiment it had first been tried. The tune also was no doubt of much service to the words. Mr. R. G. White has spoken of it as a blackberrying sort of a tune; but the truth is, that as a tune for a body of men to march by there could hardly be a better, and this was a good deal in the days when half the adult male population of America was practising the art of keeping step. And not only had the song this aid to popularity, but a path had been prepared for it in many ways. Somehow, we do not recollect how, it had then for some months been the fashion in Massachusetts for every anti-Republican gathering, and especially for Douglas and Bell-and-Everett processions, to sing in derision of Governor Andrew the words:

Tell John Andrew,
Tell John Andrew,
Tell John Andrew
John Brown's dead.

Salt won't save him, etc.,
John Brown's dead.

This again we suppose to have been an adaptation of the farcical doggerel

Tell Aunt Rhody, etc.,
The old goose is dead.

Salt won't save him, etc.

Great stress was laid by the singers on the fact of the deadness of John Brown; and we have thought that it was perhaps to this half-savage emphasizing of that fact that we owe the defiance contained in the counter-assertion that the body of Brown might indeed be mouldering in the grave, but that his soul was marching on—a conception to which the praise of sublimity cannot be denied, and which may be regarded as the civil war's chief contribution to literature. We should like to learn definitely from Mr. Hall whether he found this verse of the song "in the air," so to speak, or himself invented it. As we have said, the manner of his speech has led us to suppose him not to be the author of the first two lines, yet they are essentially the song, and a claim to the authorship of the rest of it is hardly worth prosecuting. Mr. Hall thus speaks of the composition of the five closing verses:

"I will now proceed to relate the circumstances by which I was induced to undertake the task, which was very reluctantly done. Now let it be understood that several young men, residents of Charlestown, who were glee-singers, suggested to me that the wants of the public required a song to be started under the title of the 'John Brown Song,' at the same time assuring me that it would be hailed with delight everywhere. In reply to their re-

quest that I should compose such a song, I told them that I was incompetent to conform to their wishes, but would consult with Mr. H. Partridge, of whom I had bought songs, to hire some poet to get it up; but, as he declined, the singers alluded to insisted that I should do my best, and the result is before the world."

Mr. Hall leaves us in the dark about the difference between the early music set to the words and the music of the song as copyrighted. He defends himself, we see, against the accusation of having written the stanza about hanging Jeff Davis to a sour-apple tree, and says that those lines were foisted in by some outsider.

—The legal doctrine of the "Three Degrees of Negligence"—slight, ordinary, and gross—is the subject of an article in the July number of the *American Law Review*, which has an interest not only for the practising lawyer, but for students of the relation which the common law of England bears to the Roman Law, and in fact for any one who is interested in law at all. We have not space to go into the technicalities of this old question. It is enough to say that the writer comes to the conclusion that the doctrine was unknown to the Roman Law, but was invented by Continental and English writers, who have made it survive by sheer force of its own symmetry and verbal convenience till to-day, when it is gradually beginning to crumble and disappear under the attacks of theoretical writers and courts of law. In this country, the survival of the "three degrees" was greatly helped by Story, of whom the writer of this article says, probably with great justice, that

"Mr. Justice Story's writings show that, notwithstanding his familiar acquaintance with the *Corpus Juris*, and with the works of Domat, Cujas, Heineccius, and Pothier, and his remarkable fondness for quoting them, he was not acquainted with the recent labors of those European civilians whose studies have thrown light upon some things in the Roman Law which had been previously obscured by the work of the glossators and the commentators."

The elaborate structure erected with such ingenuity by Sir William Jones upon the foundation of an incorrect reading from Ulpian, and by means of which he arrived at the extraordinary conclusion, that a perfect harmony on the subject of the three degrees of negligence existed not only in the Roman and English, but in the Arabic, the Mosaic, the Attic, the Turkish, the Mohammedan, and the Hindu laws, as well as in "the codes of the Northern barbarians," turns out at last to be a monument of erroneous criticism. The writer of the article makes the suggestion that the whole theory may well have come from the fondness of the earlier Middle-Age interpreters for tripartite divisions of all kinds—"three," according to Aristotle, being the "most perfect number," in fact the "first of numbers; for of one we do not speak as a number; of two we say both; but three is the first number of which we say all; moreover, it has a beginning, a middle, and an end." At any rate, there seems to be little or no doubt that the theory is not to be found in the Roman Law, but was the invention of the glossators, conciliators, and commentators, who were suddenly set writing by the discovery said to have been made at Amalfi in 1130.

—The Rev. Mervyn Archdall's great work, the 'Monasticon Hibernicum,' now nearly a hundred years old, if we count from the date of its first publication, and more than a hundred if we count from the time when the laborious author had it ready for the printer, has long needed new annotations which should be in the nature both of corrections to the text and additions to it. In Archdall's day Irish antiquaries were few, and Irish learned societies had hardly an existence at all, but since that time great and well-rewarded research has been carried on in every part of the domain of Irish history, and while Archdall's book has thus, to some extent, been injured, the means has at the same time been found of making it complete. This has now been accomplished. A new edition of it, with notes so voluminous as to take up about one-half as much room as the text, is now in process of publication in monthly parts by Mr. W. B. Kelly of Grafton Street, Dublin. In Great Britain the price of each number is two and sixpence; and of a volume (bound in the Roxburghe style, and containing a third of the whole work) one guinea. The price of the monthly part in this country is a dollar and a quarter.

—An English writer who has recently enlarged his knowledge of a certain herb known to literature, thinks that a competitive examiner of an ungenial mind might procure a good many blanks among the competitors' answers if he should put on his paper the following questions and requirements: "What is samphire? Quote the best English authors who mention it. To what natural family does it belong? Can it be cultivated in gardens? In what manner is it prepared for eating? Give some idea of what it tastes like." The writer thinks that in most of the answers the examiner would doubtless get the lines from "Lear" about "one that gathers samphire, dreadful trade"—a mention, by the way, which has curiously aggrandized the herb in people's minds, and raised it to some such level as

ambergris, say, or cochineal. The examiner might also, says the writer, find that a few of his young friends could quote Evelyn, who describes himself as fond of "Sampier, not only pickled but crude and cold, when young and tender, and such as we may cultivate and have in our kitchen gardens most of the year round." A larger number of the competitors, especially if denizens of the eastern counties, might, it is thought, make answer that samphire is a succulent plant; that it grows in salt marshes, occasionally covered by the tide, and grows in such profusion that its cultivation in gardens is needless; that it might, however, be made to thrive on an artificial bank of mud, which could now and then be sluiced with sea-water; that as for the method of cooking it and its taste when cooked, it may, if you like, be made into a dish of greens, when it tastes something like insipid sea-kale, but that usually it is treated raw with pepper and vinegar, under which circumstances it tastes of these two condiments solely and of nothing else whatever. Such have been some of the consequences to the reputation of Shakspeare's samphire of a vulgar error of nomenclature; and we may add that the error has extended to this side of the water, where we give the name of samphire, as so many do in England, to the *salicornia herbacea*, or glasswort, instead of to the *crithmum maritimum*, for which the name should be reserved. This latter, the Shaksperian samphire, appears to be a plant easy of cultivation, and one whose acquaintance is worth the making—especially by those healthy natural epicures whose delight is in variety of sauces and such similar preparations as, without quite being food, yet ungrossly suggest it, and afterwards assist its flavor or make of it a new thing. To make a samphire bed it is necessary to dig a hole two feet deep, three feet long, and four feet wide. This should be in a perfectly dry, well-drained, and sheltered spot, and should be filled up with bits of hard chalk to a height of two inches above the surrounding soil. Thus settling is allowed for. On the chalk thus prepared sow the samphire seed, and when it comes up see that it is kept perfectly clear of weeds. The first year, sown in the spring, it gives the cultivator a cutting towards the end of summer; the second year, the plants will be established perennials and need no more care. The leaves and young shoots are to be gathered on a dry day and put into cold vinegar, when, like Tarragon, their own proper virtues preserve them without any help of spices. You thus obtain a highly aromatized vinegar, which is an excellent anti-scorbutic, of great service on shipboard, as well as useful in other ways—chief of which is in being, as we have said, an acceptable ingredient in all sauces. As for the leaves, they are a good pickle, which in taste resembles capers; and they may be served as a salad by such as choose.

—As it was getting to be high time for the prolonged talk and wrangling in the Italian press over the alleged Americo-Italian art frauds to come to something definite, we are glad to find in the Florence *Gazzetta del Popolo*, of July 14, an authoritative declaration on this subject. It is brief and runs as follows:

"In view of a discussion regarding the state of American sculpture in Italy which has been opened in the press of the United States and continued in certain newspapers published in Europe, we, the undersigned, residents of Florence, Italy, desire to make the following statement:

"That corruption of the pure mission of art has been practised for many years by certain sculptors residing in this city and in Rome, we fear there is no reason to doubt.

"Therefore, as individuals who are greatly interested in all that relates to the welfare and the progress of art, we hail with undisguised satisfaction the attempt which has recently been made to expose all that is corrupt and illegitimate in the practices of these sculptors.

"We respectfully invite our friends, resident in the city of Rome, to concur in a corresponding declaration."

This does not name the offending "artists," nor does it furnish specific proof, but it ought to suffice to turn the discussion away from the personal character and opportunities of knowledge of Mr. S. W. Healy, seeing that it is signed, to begin with, by Longworth Powers, as well as by J. T. Hart, John MacNamee, Thomas Ball, and other more or less famous American sculptors; by the editors of several Italian papers, including the *Giornale Artistico*, the *Firenze Artistica*, and the *Nazione*, *Opinione Nazionale*, and *Rivista Italiana*; by Signor Goti, director of the Royal Galleries; by Peruggi, the mayor of Florence; by Karl Hillebrand; by a large number of Italian painters and sculptors, and many more witnesses of weight and local distinction.

—The Hungarian correspondent of the *Rivista Europea* is reported by the *Academy* as having made a discovery which is really curious. This is to the effect that the archiepiscopal library of Eger possesses a Latin manuscript (A.D. 1407) of the 'Divina Commedia,' accompanied by a commentary on the 'Inferno,' the author of which was in his time no less a personage than Giovanni da Serravalle, Bishop of Fermo. Of this manuscript Dante there is a duplicate (mentioned by Tiraboschi as probably unique) in the Vatican Library. Of interest to the general reader is the assertion made in the com-

mentary above-mentioned, that Dante was once a student at Oxford. The commentator speaks as follows:

"Iste auctor Dantes dedit se in juventute omnibus artibus liberalibus, studens eos Paduæ, Bononiæ, demum Oxoniis et Parisiis, ubi fecit multos actus mirabilis intantum, quod ab aliquibus dicebatur magnus philosophus ab aliquibus magnus Theologus ab aliquibus magnus Poeta."

This is not exactly the language of affidavits; but probably it is safe to say that the old floating tradition that Dante once studied in England may, as the *Academy* thinks, now be given a higher place in the scale of probability than has hitherto been awarded it.

—Dr. Schliemann, the explorer, writes to the *Academy* that the Greek Government has consented to his pulling down at his own expense the great square tower, known as the Venetian tower, which disfigures the Acropolis, and thrusts itself into every view of that scene. The tower stands eighty feet high; its walls, in part built of slabs taken from the surrounding ancient monuments, are five feet in thickness, and the space occupied by its foundations is 1,600 square feet of the Propylæa. It is estimated that the demolition will cost Dr. Schliemann £465; but he is to have for three years the sole privilege of publishing such inscriptions as he may bring to light, and it is confidently expected that these will be numerous. Whatever the result of his Trojan explorations, Dr. Schliemann is now rendering the public a valuable service. The work began a month ago, on July 2, to the great delight of the Athenians. But, says the Doctor, "it is impossible to please every one in this world," and he has caused the greatest commotion among many thousands of owls who have inhabited the tower, and are now homeless.

GROTE'S CHARACTER AS AN HISTORIAN.*

GROTE'S permanent reputation depends on his history. The publication of his minor works, which unfortunately do not include his remarkable 'Letters on the Politics of Switzerland,' gives the opportunity and the means of considering his character as an historian. The interesting essays edited by Mr. Alexander Bain are not, it is true, mainly historical, though they contain three valuable contributions to the theory of history; but the philosophical essays, which make up the mass of the volume, are themselves of importance in estimating Mr. Grote's position among writers on history. The review, for example, of Sir William Hamilton's philosophy contains a splendid eulogy of James Mill, and a noble tribute of gratitude from his pupil, who owed, in his own judgment, to the historian of British India "an amount of intellectual stimulus and guidance such as he can never forget." This expression of gratitude is as true as it is generous, and points to the fact, which ought never to be forgotten in any estimate of the work done by Grote, that to the philosophical enthusiasm stirred up in his mind by James Mill is due at least half of his literary success. His own great powers, his rare industry, his rarer intellectual singleness of purpose, would of themselves have led him to eminence. But something more was needed to enable him to open a new era in the study of Grecian history. His success was, moreover, achieved under no common difficulty, for he was forced to contend with a man in every respect but one his equal or superior. To expose the fallacies and weakness of Mitford was nothing. To occupy a field which Bishop Thirlwall had marked as his own was a triumph of which any man might be proud. As a scholar, Thirlwall was Grote's superior. He equalled Grote in knowledge, and probably surpassed him in judgment. The Bishop further possessed a greater command of style than his rival, who though a forcible is always an awkward and occasionally an incorrect writer. Grote, nevertheless, as the Bishop had the singular generosity both to see and admit, produced a work which has permanently thrown Dr. Thirlwall's meritorious labors into the shade. The cause of this is that Grote, with some defects, shows a force or grasp and above all an originality of mind and boldness of conception quite foreign to the somewhat episcopal caution of the Bishop's intellect. But this boldness in speculation is due, if in part to nature, in great measure also to the philosophy of James Mill, which taught his pupils not to be overawed by received opinions. "*Ausus vana contemere*" is often as good a description of the man who has triumphed in the province of philosophical or historical speculation as of the victor who has conquered in the field of battle. Grote's success at least is due above all things to the intellectual boldness which, while it did not lead him to waste his strength on the maintenance of unprofitable paradoxes, enabled him to look at the wants of the past with his own eyes unblinded by traditional phrases or prejudices sanctioned by a weight of high authority. That this is so becomes apparent the moment we consider the two main features which give its originality to Grote's 'History of Greece.' Its first peculiarity is that Grote

throughout his history judges of political institutions, and to some extent of politicians, according to the principles of modern civilization, rather than in accordance with the views which have been handed down by writers whose opinions are opposed to all modern ideas of progress. Thus, even so early as 1830 he had begun to look at the ancient democracies in a light quite different from that in which they were regarded by persons who derived their impressions solely from the language of ancient authors whose sympathies are anti-democratic. "Taking," he writes, "these defects" (of the ancient democracies) "at the utmost, and comparing the Grecian democracies with any other form of government, either existing in ancient times or projected by the ancient philosophers, we have no hesitation in pronouncing them decidedly and unquestionably superior. That the securities they provided for good government were lamentably deficient we fully admit, but the oligarchies and monarchies afforded no securities at all." This principle affords the clue which guides him throughout all his criticisms on Athenian history, and it is a clue which, if it occasionally led him into mistakes, far more frequently saved him from fatal errors and led him to perceive truths which were hidden from all other students. The boldness with which he seized on the true character of the ancient democratic governments is itself a specimen of the happy audacity with which he questioned accepted dogmas. In his explanation of the real nature of ostracism; in his marvellously sagacious comments upon the different effects of usury in the modern and in the ancient worlds; in the apt illustration, by parallels drawn from modern history, of events such as the mutilation of the Hermæ, in his defence of the Sophists, there is seen exactly the same keenness of insight and freedom of view which made it possible for him to perceive that the democratic governments of the ancient world were, if not perfect, still the best governments of their day. No one will assert that Mr. Grote's distrust of prejudices did not occasionally lead him to underestimate views of history which, though generally received, were grounded on truth. But even where the opinions he maintained are most open to question, they always bring into view facts which most readers overlook. Few critics, for example, will hold that Mr. Grote's defence of the Sophists is entirely successful. He seems to have underrated the weight which must be attached to the uniformly adverse testimony of ancient writers. But his argument has not been without fruit. No one can write of them as every one wrote of them before the publication of Grote's history. The Sophists had their vices, and Grote has underrated these vices, but no one since he wrote can treat the Sophists as a body who might be described as the Jesuits of antiquity.

The second characteristic of Grote's history is that it is the first attempt made by an historian to estimate the credibility of ancient annals in accordance with avowed and systematic canons of evidence. Niebuhr had already thrown doubt on the credibility of early legends, but he does not seem to have realized to himself, and certainly never placed before his readers, definite principles by which to determine the credibility of existing narratives. Thirlwall, again, in dealing with the legendary history of Greece, clearly showed that his belief in its worth was tempered by the dictates of educated common sense. Yet though in effect he often attached little weight to early traditions, he never lays down any general rules as to the amount of belief which ought to be assigned to the ancient myths. Grote, on the other hand, has clearly fixed principles which he never hesitates to apply. On this point, his essay on Grecian legends and his review of "Sir George C. Lewis on the Credibility of Early Roman History" are most instructive, for they unfold with great lucidity his theory of historical evidence. The fundamental principle on which it rests is that "the *onus probandi* always lies upon the historian, and the simple absence of evidence is sufficient to put him out of court." This rule he applies with the utmost rigor, combining it with another of at least equal importance, viz., that in many states of society alleged facts are believed to have happened, not because of what we in modern days should consider proof of their having taken place, but because of their coincidence with a certain condition of sentiment. Of a great part of the legends which have been handed down as originally traditions, and have been ultimately received as history, he thus writes:

"They are tales which grow out of and are accommodated to the emotions of the public among whom they circulate. They exemplify and illustrate the partialities or antipathies, the hopes or fears, the religious or political sentiments of a given audience. There is no other evidence to certify them except their plausibility, but that title is amply sufficient."

Combine these two causes, and the result which follows is obvious. You have history as long as you can trace the narrative of past events up to persons who have been witnesses of them. You may also, of course, find evidence for past facts in existing laws or customs, or in laws or customs known to have existed; but where evidence ceases, there history ceases also. Hence Grote rigidly excludes from the field of history all the great myths

* The Minor Works of George Grote: with Critical Remarks on his Intellectual Character, Writings, and Speeches. By Alexander Bain. London: John Murray.

of Greece. He shows both that it is perfectly possible to modify and adapt such legends so as to make them read like history, and further, such modification and adaptation is absolutely worthless. He also shows, and this is a matter deserving the most careful attention, that the tendency to form myths exists in all states of society, though as civilization advances it is kept in check by counteracting influences. Nothing can be happier as an illustration of this tendency than the wild story of Byron, which Grote points out as believed as a fact, without a tittle of real evidence in its support, by no less a person than Goethe. If the historian had written the article in which this illustration occurs in 1870 instead of 1843, he might have drawn further illustrations of the growth of legend from controversies and speculations connected with the history or legend of Byron.

It is, however, of consequence fully to understand Grote's position. He was not a mere historical sceptic. He was not possessed by anything like that rooted disposition to disbelieve received statements which was the weak point in the strong mind of his friend, Sir G. C. Lewis. Few things are in this respect better worth reading than his comments on Lewis's excessive scepticism. Grote points out for example that the weight to be attached to mere inconsistencies in early history may very well be overrated, for discrepancies quite as many and as great are often to be found in the accounts given by witnesses contemporary with the events they narrate, and cites in confirmation of this assertion the almost incredible obscurity in which the facts of the war in La Vendée have been involved by the carelessness or dishonesty of the persons by whom the accounts of these wars have been given. He, therefore, insists that the spirit of hypothesis and recombination, though often abused in the hands of a writer like Niebuhr, whose imagination certainly at times mastered his judgment, is in itself legitimate. In other words, he held (and this is perfectly consistent with denial of historical character to early myths) that where the particular events of a period could not be traced out because of the want of evidence on which to erect an historical narrative, many general inferences of value may be established by the use of analogy or by comparison with corresponding states of civilization in the history of better-known countries. "What we expect," he writes, "from the further study of the early republic, is not so much a corrected version of the facts of detail as better and clearer views of the institutional practice and development gathered by combination, inference, and cautious hypothesis from a variety of distinct sources." This expectation has in the case to which it refers been fully justified, for the words of Grote might be taken to describe the effect of Mommsen's labors in elucidating the earlier stages of Roman history. It expresses, moreover, the hopes of all judicious students with regard to the earlier periods of history. To turn myth into historical narrative is impossible. What is possible is to substitute for a belief in baseless though long accredited legends a certain amount of knowledge of the early development of society. The great achievement of a writer such as Grote is to have placed the facts we do know in new lights, and by making us perceive distinctly where our knowledge ceases, to have cleared the path for new and fruitful investigation.

RECENT NOVELS.*

'LORD of Himself' is the title of a novel which assumes to portray certain phases of life in Kentucky some thirty years ago. It tells us of the sufferings of a young man, Beauchamp Russell, who is the descendant of a once wealthy family that has lost its money, and in great measure its position, by the carelessness of some of its own members and the greed of some of its neighbors. The hero finds himself in great straits; he has no good horse, no good clothes, no means of earning a livelihood, and he is, of course, in love with a beautiful young woman. Besides these complications, the "peculiar institution" of the South, as it was euphemistically called, makes his position even more embarrassed. Although the beautiful Miss Sherburne confesses her love to him, there comes a slur on his good name, which makes a coolness between them for a time; but that is dispelled, and the novel ends happily. The only fault to be found is that the story is very uninteresting; the author tells us that "every one of its incidents has its foundation and parallel in actual events," but the book is not on that account

any more entertaining; it is not all truth that is stranger than fiction. The reader would welcome any amount of invention in the story, if he could only feel that they were genuine people about whom the incidents are told, but none of these characters are remarkably well drawn, they make no very keen impression; every one has met similar uninteresting people in life, it is true, but it is quite as often in the pages of novels that their "foundation and parallel" are to be found. The humor often shows marks of a heavy hand, as, for instance, in the chapter called "Joe Heady's Mat" and in the whole account of Aloysius Pittsinger's courtship and elopement. Some of the remarks are not noticeably happy—for example:

"But we are all similarly foolish once or twice in our lives. The supremacy of mind does not extend beyond its own sphere; in the domain of love all proper men are equal. The professor who murmurs his passion in Sanskrit to a blue-stocking and receives her tender answer in Hebrew, acts in precisely the same ludicrously awkward fashion as Aloysius is doing at this moment. Kings have no royal way of wooing, if they woo; nor is a countess, in presence of her future lord, free from the timidity and palpitations and the instinctive acting which belongs to universal womankind," etc., etc.

This extract is a very good specimen of the commonplace of the greater part of the book, in which fact and fiction have exchanged places.

There is a delicious absurdity about 'Brockley Moor.' All of the characters talk resounding blank verse:

"Do not forget me—never forget me!" he cried, "daughter, child of my heart!"

"Indeed—never, never can I forget you, dear Elric! I will write long letters and tell you everything."

"Will you write, daughter? Address your letters to 'Elric, White Cliff,' and you shall hear from me that they are received. Alas! poor child, you have never known a father's love—scarcely a mother's. Let not the world rob me of you, for I cherish you with a parent's affection."

"Nay, Elric, if that could be I should be unworthy of your love. If we ever meet again, you will surely find me unchanged."

"Unchanged, dear Agnes—that cannot be! You go from me untutored, strange to the world's conventionalities—guileless as an infant, pure and unsullied as the flake that falls from heaven upon this foul earth," etc.

It is the Old Bowery in full blast.

In 'A Dangerous Game,' Mr. Edmund Yates honors this country, and more especially this city, by introducing them into fiction; many of the characters of the novel, too, are Americans. The story is about Mr. Alston Griswold, a rich business man in New York, who goes to England, under an assumed name, for business purposes, and is there murdered by a false friend of his who has made love to his wife, and who finally receives the punishment due to his crimes. This is not a very attractive tale, and the company to which the reader is introduced is of a sort that is better calculated to show the author's knowledge of what is called the world than to impress upon the reader a gratifying feeling of content with the book. A late French writer, M. Gaboriau, made himself notorious by a similar work, of which the secret lies in representing impossible villains who shall be stained by every crime, and yet with their rigidly cold faces baffle all the policemen in the world, until some almost innocent scrap of evidence convicts them and gets them punished. There is in it all such almost microscopic realism of detail that the reader overlooks the harsh neglect of possibilities which makes of the characters nothing but puppets twirled on an ill-concealed string. When Mr. Yates is deep in murdering and throwing detectives off the track there is a certain interest in his unhealthy writing; there is liveliness, too, in his accounts of the milder villains and demireps, whose good side he is ready to set before us; but when he undertakes to represent a lady or a gentleman, he is off his beat. Helen Griswold is a caricature; her journal is Mr. Yates's attempt at tender pathos, done with the wooden patience with which he works out all the novel, but making the character as lifelike as a china shepherdess is like a peasant-woman. The tone of the work is low—desperately so—and 'A Dangerous Game' is no more than a chastened blood-and-thunder story of the New York Ledger.

'Hulda' is a translation, with some modifications, by Mrs. Wister, from the German of Fanny Lewald. It tells the love of the humble pastor's daughter for the Baron Emanuel, and all the suffering that embittered that young woman's path in life. It is not in any way a remarkable novel, but it is tolerably readable; those who read every novel that is published will find it more agreeable than many they are forced to put up with, while those who only read the best are less likely to be enchanted by it. The same praise, however, cannot be given to another translation from the German by the same lady—Marlitt's 'The Second Wife,' namely. This writer managed to make herself known by the 'Old Mam'selle's Secret,' which was a fairly commendable book, but this, her last effort, has almost every fault a novel can have. The heroine, a poverty-stricken German countess by birth, marries a baron, whose sole purpose in marrying is to affront a woman with whom he had formerly been in love, but who had married a loftier suitor; now this faithless one was a widow, and in love with him, but his pride and

* 'Lord of Himself.' A Novel. By F. H. Underwood. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1874.

'Brockley Moor.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1874.

'A Dangerous Game.' By Edmund Yates. Boston: William F. Gill & Co. 1874.

'Hulda'; or, The Deliverer. A Romance. After the German of F. Lewald. By Mrs. A. L. Wister. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1874.

'The Second Wife.' From the German of E. Marlitt. By Mrs. A. L. Wister. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1874.

'Olive Lacey. A Tale of the Irish Rebellion of 1793. By Anna Argyle. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1874.

'Alcestis.' Leisure Hour Series. New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1874.

'Clarissa'; or, The History of a Young Lady. By Samuel Richardson. Condensed by C. H. Jones. Leisure Hour Series. New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1874.

'The Vicissitudes of Bessie Fairfax. A Novel. By Holme Lee (Mrs. Harriet Parr), author of 'Sylvan Holt's Daughter,' 'Kathie Brand,' etc. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. 1874.

vanity alone control him. The countess is the second wife, and has a very hard time in her new home—what with her husband, a vicious old uncle of his, an odalisque living out in a house in the garden, and a priest, who is continually coming and going, and watching everything with his black eyes, and making love to her. It would be hard to say which of the characters is the greatest caricature. The whole book is overdrawn, strained, and absurdly unnatural; still, it is from the German, and will be read, as if the Germans were famous for writing good novels, and only once in a while wrote a dull one by accident.

'Olive Lacey' is rather seriously handicapped by the rest of its title, "a tale of the Irish Rebellion of 1793," but it will be found to conquer whatever aversion the reader may feel to the introduction of history into works of fiction. Too often this combination is an awkward one, and we find hardly anything but a jumble of facts and fancies which give neither information nor amusement. In this novel, however, the characters are well drawn and the incidents are cleverly contrived, so that we have not, to be sure, a masterpiece of fiction, but a very readable, unambitious story that will compare very favorably with most that we have already mentioned.

Much better than any of them, however, is the very charming 'Alcestis,' the latest addition to the admirable 'Leisure Hour Series.' As a story, it is full of interest, and this interest will be doubled for many readers by the fact that it is a musical novel. It rises, in our estimation, far above the moonlight sentimentality of 'Charles Auchester,' with really wonderful skill, never wasting words in trying to define what music is, but representing a man devoted to his profession and struggling against the various temptations which most readily beset his temperament, it gives us the life of a musician, of a composer. There is none of the fashionable psychological analysis, but in its place we have the same result, sympathetic comprehension of the characters, produced by the way in which their actions and words are set before us. The hero, Joaquin Dorioz, loves music, but he also loves the world; he is drawn with greater fairness than is generally the case with heroes who are geniuses, who get from the author all the petting that their originals demand of their mediocre fellow-citizens. His touching experience of life amid the distracting pleasures of court life in the Germany of the last century, with all the intrigues against which he has to struggle, makes a charming and pathetic story. The affection of the singer, Lisa Vaara, for him, and the sacrifice she makes in his behalf, lend the story great beauty, and raise it far above the ordinary tragedy of what might be called the common domestic novel. A great merit, although an incidental one, of the story is the skill with which all the details of the setting are subordinated to the legitimate construction of the novel; in such books it is only too often that we find the author thrusting archaeological minutiae before our notice as assiduously as do most recounters of travels their various bills of fare, but in 'Alcestis' there is no such error committed; the *mise-en-scène* seems accurate, but it is more than that, it is perfectly natural. The characters, as we have said, are all well drawn, and the novel is one that we can recommend to our readers.

There is a sound of truth in this description of the effect produced on Dorioz by hearing the overture of Gluck's "Orfeo ed Eurydice":

"All who love music know it—the power of the first wave of violins in the overture or symphony to wash us of all our dulness and dryness, to carry us straight out from ourselves. In that first delight our personal conflicting seems to be merged into a universal satisfaction, our pitiful dogmas and theories into living, fresh assents. We believe in law and harmony—yea, though it be the unconquerable woe of the world that weighs on our hearts, they rush out to meet joyfully all the sorrow of the world—inhuman, unearthly power of sound! To our musician, the first rush of instruments in the majestic allegro was a spell to break him away from himself, and the strong, fresh overture prepared the hearers for the sublime story of the old Greek."

This is about the only soliloquy of the sort in the book, and it is the absence of rhapsodies, which are generally much less intelligible than this, that makes the story one of real interest.

The name of Richardson has to most readers become of hardly more power than will suffice to bring up before the mind visions of long and prosy volumes about impossible men and women; but the publication of 'Clarissa Harlowe' will enable them to revise such vague notions, got at second-hand from those who have never read him, and probably to feel warmer respect for the critical judgment of their grandfathers, and more especially of their grandmothers. This novel, as we have it in the 'Leisure Hour Series,' is much abridged from its first ponderous size, and made more intelligible by the addition of a few useful notes; we have it really uninjured, however, for the omissions include hardly anything more than tiresome repetitions; the reader's way is only made smooth. What his verdict will be is a matter of little doubt; such different critics as Diderot and

Mrs. Barbauld, Rousseau and Dr. Johnson, do not unite in praising a writer of no merit, nor even one without an extraordinary amount of merit; often of late years he has suffered from neglect, and at times from the contempt of critics who have considered it necessary to put up Fielding by setting down Richardson, as if they were playing at see-saw, but it is only necessary to read a few pages of his master-piece, 'Clarissa Harlowe,' to feel his charm, although the form he adopted is one against which prejudice is very common. Fictitious letters have gone out of fashion; but this novel shows us the excellence of the epistolary form. It does infinitely more than that: it sets before us a lovely character suffering every indignity, but rising only purer from its trials; the beauty of Clarissa's nature hides the odiousness of the catastrophe which tends to keep the book one little read; it paints great crimes, but the reader is half consoled by the bitter punishment the villain undergoes in his repentance; and while the book contains what we, who are more squeamish than our ancestors, call coarseness, there is nothing in it that is petty; it deals with great emotions—there is nothing brought in which does not heighten the effect of the tragedy. There is no surer preservative of a fine taste than the frequent return to the acknowledged models, and Richardson is one who is too much forgotten.

'The Vicissitudes of Bessie Fairfax' is an agreeable novel of the utmost simplicity, recounting in a natural way a probable story. The heroine's vicissitudes are not startling; she has both a step-father and a step-mother, to be sure, and some of her relatives are of high birth, and some of her associates are of humbler parentage; she has various lovers, and they have life-like misunderstandings, and at last she marries the man of her choice, and all ends well without any introduction of unnecessary horrors.

Ancient Athens: Its History, Topography, and Remains. By Thomas H. Dyer, LL.D. (London: Bell & Daldy.)—Col. Leake's work upon Athens, though containing a vast store of information, is not well arranged for easy use as a book of reference, and, prior to the appearance of Dyer's 'Ancient Athens,' almost the only work in English easily accessible to the student of Athenian topography and architecture has been Dr. Smith's 'Dictionary of Greek and Roman Geography.' As a mere topographical guide-book for hasty consultation, Smith's 'Dictionary' will not be superseded by Dyer's 'Athens.' The student who seeks for generally accepted conclusions with little care for the processes and discussions by which those conclusions have been reached, and who wishes concise statements rather than elaborate descriptions, will still prefer the 'Dictionary.' He will not secure these advantages, however, without some cost, for, notwithstanding the great merits of that work, the article upon Athens is in some respects not trustworthy, partly because of its acceptance of theories now disputed or discarded, partly because of the large additions to the literature of the subject from recent excavations. The present volume treats the subject much more exhaustively, and is more generally in accord with recent authorities such as Rheinhard ('Map of Ancient Athens, 1868'), Kiepert ('Atlas Antiquus,' fifth edition, 1869), and Dr. Smith's new 'Historical Atlas of Ancient Geography' (London, 1873-74), the classical maps of which are by Dr. Karl Müller. Not only are the results of earlier investigations given, but there is a full description of the discoveries of the last twenty years, especially that of the Dionysiac theatre in 1862. No account of the recent excavations has been attainable heretofore except in scattered notices in various periodicals and in different languages, and it is a great convenience to have all this information incorporated into one volume.

Among the topics treated may be mentioned the legendary history of the city; full discussions of its topography, including the course of the walls, the location of the gates and of the agora, and other disputed matters; the history of its public edifices from their building to their mutilation by earthquakes, Turks, early Christian fanatics, and modern Christian antiquaries; the route of Pausanias, with an attempt to locate some of the objects of interest which he mentions, but which have disappeared; a detailed description of the theatre of Dionysus in its present state, with the inscriptions still existing upon the marble chairs; and references, incidental though often copious, to Athenian history, religion, legislation, and courts of law.

Dyer rejects entirely Forchhammer's theory, accepted by Smith's 'Dictionary,' as to the extent of the city walls, and agrees with Kiepert, Rheinhard, and Dr. Smith's elaborate Atlas in restricting the city to the northern side of the Ilissus. He puts the agora in the hollow between the Theseion and the western end of the Acropolis, and also locates a later agora directly north of the Acropolis, while Smith's 'Dictionary' admits but one, which it places in the hollow directly south of the Areiopagus. Smith's Atlas and Kiepert agree with Dyer in locating the agora with its temples and stoæ, but the former also puts the inscription, *Vetus Agora*, in the hollow south of the Areiopagus, and the latter marks an agora directly

south of the Acropolis, no surrounding structures, however, being figured by either. The temple commonly called the Theseum has no name in Dyer's map, but in the text he advances the hypothesis that it was the Amazonium. Smith's 'Dictionary' rejects the arguments of Ross against its identification with the temple of Theseus, while Smith's Atlas accepts them, and follows Curtius in calling it a temple of Heracles. Dyer differs from other authorities in removing Cynosarges from near the foot of Lycabettus to a point on the Ilissus just east of the Olympieum. On the other hand, Dyer agrees with Smith's 'Dictionary' as to the genuineness of the Pnyx, and supports his views against Curtius in an elaborate appendix.

The heights of the mountain ranges which bound the plain of Athens purport to be taken from the measurements of the British Survey, and ought to be correct, but they differ materially from those given in Smith's Atlas. Compare the following figures, taken respectively from Dyer and from the Atlas: Hymettus, 3,056, 3,369; Parnes, 4,193, 4,635; Pentelicus, 3,884, 2,559.

In an extended appendix, Dyer attempts to show that the arrangement of the logeium, orchestra, and thymele of the theatre, as given by Suidas and Vitruvius, is not applicable to classic times, and hence has been misinterpreted by Donaldson ('Theatre of the Greeks') and others. He maintains that Vitruvius is not describing the theatre of the great dramatists, but the theatre required in his own time to meet the recent demands of gladiatorial combats; that in the classic age, the stage and the first row of spectators were not elevated ten or twelve feet above the orchestra; and that the part of the orchestra in front of the altar was not covered with a raised wooden platform, called thymele, for the movements of the chorus, the term thymele being restricted to the altar. He is led to this position from an examination of the Dionysiac theatre, in which the stage is raised only four or five feet above the floor of the orchestra, and the first row of seats is on a level with that floor. With such an arrangement, if the chorus had stood upon an elevated platform, the view of the stage would have been wholly cut off from the priests and magistrates, whose reserved seats in the first row were considered the choicest of all. He believes, moreover, that the lozenge-shaped pavement, so conspicuous in all the photographs of the theatre, furnished guiding lines for the files of the chorus in their movement across the orchestra, and that these lines preclude the possibility of a raised platform, by which they would have been completely hidden. This reasoning is plausible, but it would be much more conclusive if the stage and its surroundings were not evidently of a comparatively late date, the remains of the earlier scena being still visible further to the south; and the reasons adduced for the hypothesis that the general arrangements of the classic stage and orchestra were reproduced in the restored theatre of Roman times, cannot be considered so weighty as to put the matter beyond dispute.

This book is a large octavo of 553 pages, well supplied with maps and plans, and illustrated with a few wood-cuts. The publishers have done their work well, and the typographical errors are not numerous. Moreover, the book was evidently written because the author was interested in his subject, and had something new to say upon it.

The Four Civilizations of the World. An Historical Retrospect. By Henry Wikoff, author of 'A Visit to Prince Louis Napoleon at Ham,' 'Political Essays,' etc. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1874. 12mo, pp. 416.)—Mr. Wikoff would have done better if he had called his book 'The Fourth Civilization' rather than the "Four"; for the first three civilizations (including three pages of "A Mystery") occupy but 29 pages out of 416. Neither is the force of the definite article apparent, for we venture to say that nobody could guess off hand what the four are. When we come to examine them, moreover, we see no reason why they might not have been lumped together in one; for the characteristic of the first civilization, Asia, was "the concentration of all the power, wealth, and knowledge in the hands of the upper classes, whilst ignorance, poverty, and slavery were the lot of the lower class"; and as for the second civilization, Africa, "similar physical causes produced a state of society in all respects analogous"; and the third civilization again, Europe, only differed from the others in the fact that it, "intellectually, far surpassed those preceding it." By European civilization, by the way, is understood simply that of ancient Greece and Rome, the fourth civilization being that of Christianity. It will be seen that the substance of Mr. Wikoff's philosophy of history is that the one essential element and criterion of civilization is democracy; any other contributions to humanity made by Egypt, Greece, and Rome are of no account. It is a curious sense of proportion, therefore, which thinks fit to prefix this shallow and cumbrous introduction to a work the immediate aim of which was to "give a concise and intelligible exposition of the history of France, England, and the United States." If that is what Mr. Wikoff wished to do, why did he not do it?

The narrative portions of this work possess considerable merit, and the errors generally come from an insufficient acquaintance with the latest authorities. Page 23, the author speaks of the Roman centuries "consisting of 100 citizens each"; p. 44, we read of Charlemagne "of France"; p. 61 Robert Guiscard is called "another William of Normandy"; p. 153, we read, in connection with some very good remarks, that "the Saxon middle class [the common freeman] possessed no political or municipal privileges till the thirteenth century"; and again, p. 167, that the Parliament of 1265 was "the first appearance of the People on the political stage"; p. 291, that "none but Englishmen could have laid the foundation of a pure democracy" in America, for the reason that the French and Spanish colonists "knew nothing of the representative system."

Sea and Shore: A Collection of Poems. (Boston: Roberts Bros. 1874.)

—This is a pretty volume, from which some visitors to the salt sea waves will miss some poems which they will think the compiler should not have omitted; and in which also they will find some pages which they would willingly tear out and cast overboard; but although no great severity of taste has guided the compiler, the collection nevertheless contains much welcome poetry. Glancing over it, one thinks that it might well have begun with Mr. Emerson's "Seashore":

"I heard or seemed to hear the chiding Sea
Say, Pilgrim, why so late and slow to come?
Am I not always here—thy summer home;
Is not my voice thy music, morn and eve,
My breath thy healthful climate in the heave,
My touch thy antidote, my bay thy bath?"

"My paths lead out
The exodus of nations: I disperse
Men to all shores that front the hoary main."

The reader may partly judge of the character of this collection by looking at some of the names, good and not so good, represented in it: Henry Abbey, Elizabeth Akers, Bret Harte, Matthew Arnold, Thomas G. Appleton, William Allingham, T. B. Aldrich, Barry Gray, C. P. Cranch ("Virgil"), Felicia Hemans ("The Breaking Waves Dashed High"), Cowper, Lord Derby and Mr. Bryant ("Homer"), Julia Ward Howe, Allan Cunningham, Harriet Prescott Spofford, Celia Thaxter, Wordsworth, Lockhart, Swinburne, E. C. Stedman, D. G. Rossetti, Longfellow, Lowell, John Wilson ("Christopher North").

RECENT GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS.

Annual Report of the Secretary of the Navy on the Operations of the Department in 1873. Washington: Government Printing Office. 1873. 8vo, pp. 628, and three maps.

This volume is one of unusual interest, in a scientific point of view, from the official details which it gives concerning surveys and explorations for a canal between the Atlantic and Pacific, the transit of Venus, and the *Polaris* expedition; all of them subjects, also, to which the public attention has been strongly directed. The general results of the examinations of the Darien and Nicaragua regions, made with reference to an interoceanic canal, under Commanders Selfridge and Lull, are already familiar to our readers from our notice of the reports of these officers. The whole matter has lately been referred to a Government board for final decision as to what appears to be actually the best route and the best method of accomplishing the object in question. Whether anything will be done by the United States towards constructing the proposed canal is somewhat questionable; if it be undertaken at all, it will probably be by some European nation, in which event the American exploration will be extremely serviceable.

The *Polaris* expedition is treated of at great length, no less than 404 pages of the 628, and three maps, being devoted to this subject. The report gives the full history of the rescue of the Tyson and Buddington parties. On the arrival of the rescued men in Washington, a Board of Investigation was appointed by the Secretary of the Navy, consisting of Commodore Reynolds of the Navy Department, Captain H. W. Hawgate of the Signal Service, and Prof. S. F. Baird of the Smithsonian Institution, the Secretary himself acting as Chairman of the Board. A careful enquiry was entered into as to the history of the voyage, the circumstances attendant upon Captain Hall's death, the separation of the party from the vessel, and their rescue. In the meantime, the steamer *Juniata* was sent, via Newfoundland, to Greenland, with a view of preparing the way for the *Tigress*, which it was thought might be obliged to winter in the north, and which followed very soon after. The *Polaris* party that remained on the vessel spent the winter of 1872-73 on the shore at Lifeboat Cove, in latitude 70° 23', and on the 3d of June, abandoning the *Polaris*, started in boats which they had built, in the hope of reaching the region visited by whalers; and they were actually picked up by a British whaler, the *Ravenscraig*, and carried into Dundee. From this place they returned to Washington, where the Board of

Investigation already mentioned renewed the enquiry on the 11th of October, including the inquest made by the Board of Investigation at Washington, which resulted in the opinion that the death of Captain Hall was caused by apoplexy, and due entirely to natural causes; and that the general results of the exploration of the *Polaris* were of a high value, both geographically and otherwise. Of the maps, the first gives the track of the *Junia* from Godhaven, Upernavik, etc., as well as that of its steam launch the *Little Junia*. In the second, we have the tracks of these vessels repeated, as well as that of the *Tigress*; while the third shows the route of the *Polaris*, in its movements between latitudes 73° and $82^{\circ} 26'$ —the highest point attained—with the geographical features as corrected or observed for the first time by the *Polaris* party. The most important points of geographical advancement consist in the discovery of a deep fjord, or possibly even a strait, cutting off the northern extremity of Greenland; and an indication of open water north of $82^{\circ} 15'$; and also of points of land further north, the northernmost being estimated at about $84^{\circ} 40'$. Land was also traced nearly as far as this to the west side of Robeson Channel, and of what has been termed the Lincoln Sea. A comparison of this map with Dr. Hayes's chart, published by the Smithsonian Institution, will show the large amount of additional information thus brought to light.

The American Ephemeris and Nautical Almanac for the year 1875. Published by the authority of the Secretary of the Navy. Second edition. Bureau of Navigation, Washington. 1874. 8vo, pp. 528.

It is not many years since vessels of the United States, belonging both to the national and to the merchant marine, depended upon Great Britain for the nautical almanacs used in their voyages. In 1849 an act of Congress was passed authorizing the preparation of an American Ephemeris, which commenced with the volume for 1855, and has ever since been continued. The work is now under the charge of Professor J. H. C. Coffin, Professor of Mathematics, U. S. Navy. The present volume, for 1875, is a second edition, the first having been published in 1872.

Almanac for the Use of Navigators, from the American Ephemeris and Nautical Almanac for the year 1877. Published by authority of the Secretary of the Navy. Bureau of Navigation, Washington. 1874. 8vo, pp. 268.

This portion of the American Ephemeris and Nautical Almanac for 1877, adapted to the meridian of Greenwich, is designed for the special use of navigators. It contains ephemerides of the sun and moon; the distances of the moon from the centres of the sun and the four most conspicuous planets, and from certain fixed stars; the ephemerides of the planets Venus, Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn; and the mean places of one hundred and ninety-eight fixed stars for the beginning of the year 1877. An account of the eclipses of the year, with charts of the solar eclipses, is also given.

Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office, United States Army. In three volumes. Volume III.: Supplement; I. Anonymous; II. Transactions; III. Reports; IV. Periodicals. Washington: Government Printing Office. 1874. Large 8vo, pp. 320.

The library of the Surgeon-General's Office of the United States Army is rapidly advancing to the first rank among the special libraries of this class, at the present time numbering not far from 30,000 volumes, of almost exclusively medical publications, and a very large number of pamphlets. It is contained in the fire-proof building of the Army Medical Museum, formerly Ford's Theatre, and is under the special charge of Dr. J. E. Billings,

Surgeon U. S. A. An appropriation is made annually by Congress of \$10,000 for the purchase of books and for the support of the Museum; and by an arrangement with the Library of Congress, certain classes of medical works in its charge are transferred to this establishment, among them the medical theses of foreign universities received by the Smithsonian Institution through its foreign exchanges. It forms indeed the medical branch of the Congressional Library, as no purchases of medical books, with the exception of a few general treatises, are now made by the Congressional Library, but are left to that of the Medical Department of the Army. A precisely similar plan of cataloguing is adopted by the two establishments, and it would be purely a mechanical work, of a comparatively slight degree of labor, to melt the smaller into the larger at very short notice.

Senate Report 307. Part I.: Report of the Select Committee on Transportation Routes to the Seaboard, with Appendix and Evidence. Washington: Government Printing Office. 1874. Part II.: Testimony taken.

After a general enquiry into the statistics of the production of cereals in the United States, and all other bulky articles requiring cheap transportation for long distances, and the course of trade in this respect, the Report takes up the consideration of actual competition between water and rail transportation; the defects and abuses of the existing systems of transportation; the constitutional power of Congress to regulate commerce among the several States; the competition between railways and its promotion by the construction of additional lines; direct regulation by Congress; indirect regulation and reduction of charges through the agency of one or more railway lines to be owned or controlled by the Government; and the improvement of natural and construction of artificial water-ways. The water-ways extensively considered are those embracing the lakes and the New York and Canadian Canals, the James River and Kanawha Canal, the Atlantic and Great Western Canal, the Mississippi route, the Ohio River, Kanawha River below the Great Falls, Wisconsin and Fox Rivers improvement, and Rock Island and Hennepin Canal. Other water lines, referred to by the Committee with less detail, are the improvement of the Illinois River, the canals of Pennsylvania, the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal, the Florida Ship Canal, and the improvement of the natural water-ways of the Pacific coast. The Committee recommend that all railway companies engaged in inter-State commerce be required to publish rates and fares, and to receipt for quantity, and account for the same at its destination, and be prohibited from charging more for a less than for a greater distance. Various methods of preventing combinations, consolidations, stock inflation, etc., are also indicated. The construction of double-track freight railways is urged, but the greatest reliance is placed by the Committee upon the improvement and maintenance of reliable water-routes.

. Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	Publishers.—Prices.
About (E.), The Notary's Nose.....	(Henry Holt & Co.) \$1 25
Eastman (E. C.), White Mountain Guide-Book, 11th ed.....	(Lee & Shepard) 1 50
Gould (T.), The Bride of the Broken Vow: a Poem, swd.....	(W. H. Young & Blake)
McPherson (E.), Handbook of Politics for 1874.....	(Solomons & Chapman)
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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

NEW YORK, August 3.

THE money market has remained easy at the rates last quoted—2 to 3 per cent. on call—and, judging from the present outlook for increased activity in the different branches of business, the prospect is that very little change will take place in rates until the latter part of the month or early in September. The indications are that money will be easy throughout the fall, notwithstanding the demand which will arise for the purpose of "moving the crops." Commercial paper is in good demand at low rates, especially for firm names having a short time to run. Paper running 60 and 90 days has been placed during the week at 5 to 6 per cent.

There is a somewhat firmer feeling in the London market for money, the Bank of England having raised its minimum discount rate from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 per cent., owing to a heavy loss in bullion for the week ending on Thursday last.

The weekly statement of the New York banks on Saturday was very favorable, showing a still further gain of \$1,144,100 in the surplus reserve. The excess of reserve now held by the banks over the legal requirement is \$30,427,275. The following statement shows the changes in the different items:

	July 25.	August 1.	Differences.
Loans.....	\$284,168,100	\$282,012,600	Dec... \$2,155,500
Specie.....	26,646,700	25,293,700	Dec... 1,353,000
Legal tenders.....	63,714,800	65,818,900	Inc... 2,104,100
Deposits.....	244,313,300	242,741,300	Dec... 1,572,000
Circulation.....	25,767,600	25,762,200	Dec... 5,400

The following shows the relations between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	July 25.	August 1.	Differences.
Specie.....	\$26,646,700	\$25,293,700	Dec... \$1,353,000
Legal tenders.....	63,714,800	65,818,900	Inc... 2,104,100
Total reserve.....	\$90,361,500	\$91,112,600	Inc... \$751,100
Reserve required against deposits.....	61,078,325	60,685,325	
Excess of reserve above legal requirement.....	29,283,175	30,427,275	Inc... 1,144,100

The stock market has been very dull. Prices, however, have remained quite strong, and the quotations on some of the speculative stocks show an improvement at the end of the week over those current at the commencement. To-day the market opened strong, and was at times quite active in Lake Shore, Western Union, and Union Pacific. The sales of the day foot up about 80,000 shares. The market was never so free from speculative influences as it is at present. The

large operators, including Mr. Gould, have been absent from the city during the week, and the result was, that for several days the Stock Exchange was almost entirely neglected.

Nothing official has been published regarding the negotiation of the new fives by the Treasury. So far as is known, the total award of bonds made was \$55,000,000—\$10,000,000 at par in gold and accrued interest to private investors, and \$45,000,000 at par and interest in gold, less $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. commission, to the Syndicate composed of the Messrs. Seligman and A. Belmont & Co., together with the foreign houses which they represent and the First National Bank of this city, with the option of a "call" for the remaining \$124,000,000 at the same price for the period of six months. The Secretary of the Treasury on Monday issued a call for the presentation of 25,000,000 5-20's of 1862 on or before the 1st of November next for redemption, after which date interest upon them will cease. The people have not been able to understand as yet why the Treasury rejected the bids, amounting to nearly \$15,000,000, made at par, less $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. commission, and accepted that made by the Syndicate; while the call of the Treasury for only \$25,000,000 5-20's, when \$55,000,000 new fives have been taken, has led to considerable discussion, and has given rise to the opinion that an understanding was had by the Secretary with the Syndicate before the Treasury issued its circular inviting proposals from the public for the remaining unissued 5 per cent. bonds, and that the circular was issued merely for the purpose of satisfying public opinion, while the real object was to treat with the Syndicate.

The market for Government bonds has been unsettled by reason of the Treasury operations. The following are the closing quotations this evening:

	BID.	ASKED		BID.	ASKED
Registered 6's, 1881, c.....	118 $\frac{1}{2}$	118 $\frac{3}{4}$	Registered 5-20, 1867, c.....	117 $\frac{1}{2}$	117 $\frac{3}{4}$
Registered 5-20, 1862, c.....	111	112	Registered 5-20, 1868, c.....	118	118 $\frac{1}{2}$
Registered 5-20, 1864, c.....	115 $\frac{1}{2}$	115 $\frac{3}{4}$	Registered 10-40's, c.....	113 $\frac{1}{2}$	113 $\frac{3}{4}$
Registered 5-20, 1865, M and N.....	114 $\frac{1}{2}$	115	Registered 5-20's of 1881.....	111 $\frac{1}{2}$	112
Registered 5-20, 1865, J and J.....	116	116 $\frac{1}{2}$	U. S. Currency 6's.....	117 $\frac{1}{2}$	117 $\frac{3}{4}$

The Secretary has ordered the sale of \$5,000,000 gold during the present month. The following shows the fluctuations in the gold premium during the week:

	Opening.	Highest.	Lowest.	Closing.
Monday, July 27.....	109 $\frac{1}{2}$	109 $\frac{1}{2}$	109 $\frac{1}{2}$	109 $\frac{1}{2}$
Tuesday, July 28.....	109 $\frac{1}{2}$	109 $\frac{1}{2}$	109	109 $\frac{1}{2}$
Wednesday, July 29.....	119	109 $\frac{1}{2}$	109	109 $\frac{1}{2}$
Thursday, July 30.....	109 $\frac{1}{2}$	109 $\frac{1}{2}$	109 $\frac{1}{2}$	109 $\frac{1}{2}$
Friday, July 31.....	109 $\frac{1}{2}$	109 $\frac{1}{2}$	109	109 $\frac{1}{2}$
Saturday, Aug. 1.....	109 $\frac{1}{2}$	109 $\frac{1}{2}$	109 $\frac{1}{2}$	109 $\frac{1}{2}$

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Miss Marie Hilken's Institute for Young Ladies, located at Feldstrasse, No. 6, Hanover, Germany. References: John Stellmann, Esq., Baltimore; Christian Ax, Esq., Baltimore; Dr. D. W. Brickell, New Orleans; Rev. A. P. Perfect, Rector St. John's sub Castro, Lewes, England; Lt.-General Lewis, 74 Chester Square, London, England; S. B. Merriman, Esq., 25 Austin Friars, London, England.

